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Improving Thinking Skills
Through Reading

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Theme Introduction**A Hundred Years Later**

IT is commonly known that in 1838 Horace Mann vehemently denounced the use of the ABC method of teaching reading in his second annual report to the Massachusetts Board of Education. What is not so commonly known are his recommendations concerning reading for meaning. He wrote as follows:

... more than eleven twelfths of all the children in the reading classes in our schools do not understand the meaning of the words they read; that they do not master the sense of the reading lessons, and that the ideas and feelings intended by the author to be conveyed to, and excited in, the reader's mind, still rest in the author's intention, never having yet reached the place of their destination.

It may be that the preoccupation of teachers with the ABC method reflects also their lack of attention to improving techniques for developing thinking readers. Not heeding Mann's admonition about comprehension could account for the phonetic panaceas so glibly voiced during the past decade.

Are we ready now to approach the teaching of reading as though reading were primarily a thinking process? Are we ready now, in 1960, to move beyond word memorization, the parroting of stories, and the unthinking recital of story facts? If we are, here are two things we have been certain about for some time:

First, the techniques for directing reading as a thinking process are known and are clearly spelled out. The articles in this issue give support to this declaration. Other recent

publications give additional information and clarity. It can no longer be said that we don't know how.

Second, as David Russell, John DeBoer, Donald Durrell, and J. P. Guilford and others have said, teachers must change their attitudes toward the teaching of reading as well as their practices. Whether or not pupils develop into blind readers is primarily the decision of teachers. Guilford says in his article in this issue that the teaching of reading as a thinking process depends to a large degree upon the skillful questioning or directing of thinking on the part of the teacher.

That reading instruction can be directed in such a way that the total act becomes a reading-thinking process is an established fact. That children can be taught how to think (and read) critically is the belief of many psychologists and educators. That training should be begun when children start to school and be continued through high school and college is the conviction of many. And that our democracy needs alert, informed, and discriminating readers and thinkers who will not tolerate mental servitude to anything but the truth is recognized by all.

Let us not weary then in well doing, for in due season we shall reap. Let it be said of us that in the 1960's we brought gold for brass, for iron we brought silver, for wood we brought brass, and for stones we brought iron. Then we too can walk worthy of the vocation to which we have been called.—R. G. S.

The Teacher's Task in the Development of Thinking

by IRVING LORGE

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IN ARRIVING at a definition or conceptualization of thinking I tried to list as many verbs about thinking and thought as I could. This list was supplemented by an active search for other verbs which should be added to fill out my working definition of thinking. The list contained forty-nine verbs. The next step was to try to bring together verbs that seemed to have common elements, and, then, to organize the sets in a sequence. My grouping may not be yours—but it may suggest a process by which you can synthesize your own categories and your own sequences. The content analysis comprised twenty sub-clusters as follows:

List A

attend orient
observe regard
relate recall associate
abstract conceive conceptualize
generalize
comprehend understand
review reorganize
know believe
evaluate appreciate

List B

concentrate
seek search
ascertain analyze
deliberate contemplate
ponder meditate
speculate consider guess imagine
judge reason surmise infer
hypothesize deduce
restructure plan

solve discover

verify decide conclude confirm
act resolve

The two lists give some impression of the complexity of the thinking process. The act of thinking, indeed, is more complicated than the verbs in the twenty sub-clusters. Nevertheless, the classification suggests a comprehensive structure for the behaviors subsumed under the verb *think*.

For me, two large blocks of ideas emerged to define thinking: first, in List A, the sequence represents the behaviors exhibited in learning for mastery; and second, List B shows the sequence of behaviors involved in solving problems, coming to decisions, in inventing, and in creating.

Learning and thinking are inter-related. The verbs in List A seem to parallel in sequence those in List B, although the emphases and goals differ. In learning for mastery, the steps begin with attending, and continue with observing and regarding, utilizing past knowledge and experience in recall, and relating the common elements through to the active processes of concept-formation and generalizing, to the important phases of comprehending and understanding. In the learning sequence, viewing the materials and skills in new ways will deepen knowledge and belief in terms of evaluation and appreciation—the genuine learning of the philosophers.

List B usually implies an obstacle that has to be overcome. The list suggests Dewey's famous five steps: experiencing a felt difficulty, locating and defining the difficulty, evolving suggestions for the solution, reasoning about possible outcomes for the solution, and, on verifying the solution in thought, concluding and taking action.

The range of terms related to the act of thinking gives ample evidence of the great variety of behaviors involved in thinking. In addition, contemplation of the terms serves to emphasize the importance for us in understanding what a child, or a teacher, means by thinking. The child who is attending to what his neighbor is doing, or who is trying to recall the number of products that can be made from coal, or who is contemplating in retrospect the swimming test he passed last summer can say that he is thinking—and he is! Many teachers, of course, have an expectation that thinking usually means the solving of a problem in arithmetic, or the suggesting of the reasons why cotton is produced in California or beef cattle are raised in Florida, or the consecutive steps in writing a composition or creating a poem.

Thinking involves all these—and much more. Teachers must appreciate that the behaviors involved in the acquisition of an idea, the recognition of similarity or difference, or the deepening of a meaning are as much thinking as are the behaviors in solving a puzzle, planning for a picnic, or discovering a new process

in chemistry. The implied gradient, of course, suggests that all of us think at different levels at different times. Some of us become aware of a new fact and try to fit it into our store of knowledge; and the same person may also be working out a procedure for simplifying the recording of grades, the giving of assignments, or the staging of a play.

Thinking, however, must be learned—and in the learning, the consequences of successful thinking must be satisfying. Thinking always involves some activity on the part of the thinker, whether it be recalling, or getting at the principles, or whether it be reorganizing material or developing a new methodology. Thinking can be taught by stimulating the learner to overcome obstacles within his intellectual range at his developmental stage and his intellectual level.

In teaching the child to think, the problem or task should be difficult enough to stimulate the learner—but not so difficult as to frustrate the child. Fortunately, the teacher can help the child by providing cues, hints, suggestions, and clues for the solution of the problem. In textbooks in arithmetic and algebra, authors usually provide hints or suggestions. Sometimes they provide the answer so that the learner may verify his thinking and obtain the satisfaction of solving the problem. Thinking and reasoning can occur in any subject or skill, in school and outside. Thinking requires the rearrangement of ideas, principles, and skills in finding the path from what is known to what is

to be discovered. Teachers not only must encourage thinking, but, more important, they must teach thinking as an active process not only in every school period but also on the playing field and in the home.

Basically, the teacher has the responsibility of giving each learner the attitude that he can grow by giving thought to his life—by thinking and reasoning about his experiences, applying his knowledge to new situations. Every subject and every class can provide the stimulation for thinking and the satisfaction of solution.

The teacher can guide the learner's thinking about any problem by suggesting, through questions and by hints, the need to clarify the problem, to seek parallels, to open new vistas. Since much of the child's learning comes either through reading or listening, the teacher can help the child appreciate the important steps in thinking as they apply to his reading of a specific passage. Below is a passage from one of my unpublished reading tests. The teacher may suggest some questions which not only would motivate the reading but which might also suggest possible answers that would involve critical thinking. For example, the teacher may ask, "What is the passage all about?" "What was the influence of standing armies on the manufacture of clothing?" "What would be possible actions of a union if somebody invented a way of making something quicker or better?" Here is the passage:

"The first ready-made clothing

establishments were set up for the manufacture of uniforms, the need for which arose with the coming of standing armies. After the Thirty Years War, Austria, for instance, maintained a standing army of 33,000 men. The uniforms were tailored partly in regimental workshops, partly in state or private factories, partly even in prisons and penitentiaries. The large number of measurements made by the military tailors enabled them to establish standard dimensions, which were utilized to produce for stock.

"The first large firm producing ready-mades for civilian needs was founded by Pierre Parissot in Paris in 1824. This was situated near the Pont Neuf, one of the busiest bridges across the Seine, and also near the flower market, hence the name: 'La Belle Jardiniere.'

"Parissot, who sold cloth and haberdashery, aimed at the manufacture of plain men's clothes designed to be cheaper than made-to-measure goods and little more expensive than second-hand apparel. As the handicraft tailors refused to work for him, Parissot was forced to have his first trousers and jackets sewn in prison workshops. By the end of 1824 he already had a complete line of ordinary working clothes for men. They sold so fast that he was hardly able to satisfy demand, and it was at this point that the master tailors decided to work under him. Parissot's small shop soon proved too small for the business. In 1830 he bought up the neighboring houses and in 1854 added a further block

of twenty-five existing buildings. All his productions were hand-sewn and about half of the output was destined for the provinces and for export. Parissot was the first manufacturer to charge a fixed and clearly marked price for his goods. Also, he demanded cash payment, whereas previously prices were arrived at by bargaining with customers, who also were allowed credit. About 1850 the working capital of the firm was three million francs, a very considerable sum for those days. By that time Parissot also had branches in the provinces."

After the reading, the teacher could ask questions like the following: (1) What would be a good title for this passage? (2) Around 1820 how did a workingman get, or where did he buy, his work clothes? (3) Why was it that dealing in second-hand clothing was an important business in the 1700's and 1800's? (4) What is the value in "standardizing measurements"? Can you give examples that would apply today? (5) What invention was needed to speed and reduce the cost of making clothes? (6) Why was this passage written? (7) How can you find out whether the author was accurate and fair?

The questions are directed to provide a scheme by which the reader and learner can think with text materials. Indeed, the formulation of the questions parallels the analysis of any communication: Who says what to whom via what channels for what purpose and with what effect?

Basically, the questions are graded.

The first few are designed to ascertain whether the child understands the material generally, e.g., author's main point or conclusion, general idea, details that support or lead to the conclusion. The second sort of questions are directed to relating the child's previous learnings and experiences to the problem, e.g., Are there situations now existing like this? Can any of the processes and conclusions be applied today in other areas? Can you predict what happened after this event? Are there any of the consequences still to be found?

A third set of questions could be directed to implications from the passage, e.g., Does this passage give any understanding of the prejudices of people? Why would people differ about the relative advantages of these ideas or this invention or this process? What values do you see in getting at the history of an idea?

A fourth set of questions might be directed toward formulating of hypotheses, e.g., Why did this event take place? How can you account for it?

The teacher's task in the development of thinking is important and significant. The steps must, by suggesting, hinting, or questioning, lead the learner through the phases of understanding the problem, suggesting hypotheses or reasons for the existence of the problem, and formulating hypotheses for the solution of the problem. Here the teacher can help the learner by asking him to formulate questions. Good questioning is good hypothesis formulation. The learners can be helped by being

asked to formulate questions seeking additional information or inquiring about motives or prejudices or special pleading.

The art of questioning can be directed toward seeing similarities or differences (concept formation), or seeing common elements among concepts (generalization), or recognizing the limitations or advantages (evaluation). Questions can be formulated toward seeing sequences (structure and restructure), toward evidence and proof (verification). Indeed, each line of verbs in Lists A and B should suggest the direction of the thinking-learning process.

The development of thinking in pupils is a responsibility of all the teachers who meet the pupils. The emphasis should be upon developing in the child the ability for critical thinking. Even in the lowest grades children can be given the challenge of finding out how to attack a new word, how to infer the meaning of a word as used in context, how to recognize common elements among words, both in configuration and in meaning. The child should be made aware that critical thinking is an active process in which he can participate by collecting data, or suggesting examples of a principle, or demonstrating equivalences or similarities. He should be encouraged to see that one of the first steps in critical thinking is to organize information and experiences about problems by recognizing similarities or differences.

One of the most provocative experiences children can have is the

challenge of suggesting hypotheses for a set of outcomes or facts. These could range from accounting for the pattern of rainfall in eastern Puerto Rico, the probable reasons for the Union Army's failure at the Battle of Bull Run, to the efficiency of a bicycle over a tricycle. The children should be encouraged to challenge some generalizations in terms of: What are the facts? Are they grouped properly? Did the author make an error in generalization or in inference? The matter of proof depends to a large degree on the respect for evidence. Can the children be led to recognize that not all the evidence has been adduced for a particular generalization or that the generalization does not consider all the available evidence? Undoubtedly, many opportunities will be found for understanding and criticizing advertisements and their claims, or for the understanding of propaganda, both positive and persuasive.

Since thinking is to be encouraged with reference to all experiences of the child, all teachers must cooperate in making the child aware of the importance of critical thinking, not only with reference to school learning but also with reference to experiences outside the school. This means that the child should be taught to test his own attitudes and interests. He ought to try to find out why he has certain attitudes toward people from other countries or toward a particular professional baseball team or toward one political party. For maximum transfer to be effected, all teachers must encourage and reward critical think-

ing. This, of course, implies that the teacher is competent to think critically in her subject area so that she is able to give illustrations of the way generalizations are developed, how evidence is organized, how hypotheses are formulated, how the requirements for proof are utilized.

In a significant sense, it will not be easy for teachers to reward critical thinking if they themselves are less than fully competent in the process.

One of the most exciting ways for a teacher to become aware of the aspects of critical thinking relevant for her in her particular area of competency is in the making of reading tests. As the teacher tries to formulate the kinds of questions suggested in the treatment of the passage used earlier, she will become aware of the fact that she is making hypotheses, suggesting organization of data, seeing relations that exist between the passage and past experience and knowledge. If the teacher were to try to make multiple choice questions, she would see that some of the most likely errors in thinking could be anticipated. For example, the following three items are items made to evaluate the child's understanding of the passage:

1. The best title for this passage is (a) Sweat Shop Labor, (b) *Ready to Wear Clothing*, (c) Military Uniforms, (d) Unfair Competition, (e) Dangers of Prison Labor.

2. The experience of the military tailors in manufacturing uniforms for the Austrian Army gave the

tailors the experience for (a) producing large stocks, (b) establishing fixed prices for clothes, (c) opening branch stores, (d) *standardizing measurements*, (e) training master tailors.

3. The development of mass production of clothing on a large scale awaited the (a) development of retail stores, (b) elimination of prison labor, (c) improvement of clothing design, (d) growth of labor unions, (e) *invention of the sewing machine*.

Again, it is always stimulating to try to determine if given facts can be organized in terms of common principles or in sequences. The illustration given at the beginning of this article on the organization of verbs about thinking represents one attempt to show the generalization emerging from an active search for organization. Some forms of content organization can be widely applied. In the United States Air Force, for instance, the use of a general scheme applied to any problem became the basis for improvement in quality of the solution produced for problems by officers.

Thinking is an active process. It seeks and searches. It organizes and generalizes. It collects and solves. Thinking does not always produce a set answer. It is not memory, although it uses what is remembered; it is not generalization, but the process of arriving at generalization. Thinking is basically an attitude of suspended judgment about the problems all of us face.

Frontiers in Thinking That Teachers Should Know About

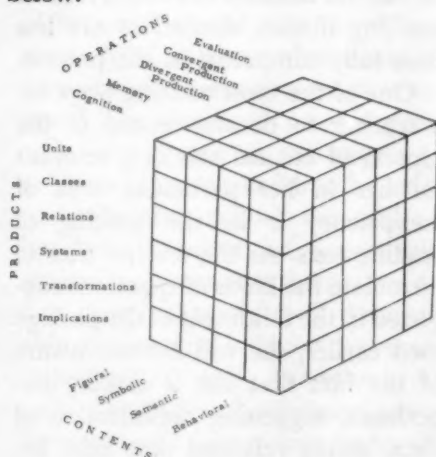
by J. P. GUILFORD
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THERE IS little doubt that the teacher of reading has a wealth of opportunities to teach the child to think. The teacher who has only the very general and rather vague objective of "teaching the child to think," however, is not likely to do justice to the task. In the past, the prevailing conception has probably been that thinking is a single kind of activity and that the ability to think is intelligence. Some relatively recent developments in research on the analysis of intelligence indicate that there are a great many different thinking abilities. If we look upon each of these thinking abilities as a distinct kind of thinking skill, and if we know what kind of skill it is, we have a much more definite objective at which to aim in teaching how to think.

Components of Intellect

During the past twenty years numerous investigations by the methods of factor analysis have brought to light some sixty different abilities having to do with intellectual activities. The large number is rather overwhelming to those who have been accustomed to the simple idea of one ability—intelligence—or at the most, the few primary mental abilities of Thurstone. Fortunately, it has been possible to find a definite system in which to organize the intellectual abilities, with some interesting new

principles (1, 2). The system is known as the "structure of intellect," which is represented in the figure below.



A THREE-DIMENSIONAL MODEL FOR THE STRUCTURE OF INTELLECT

There are five classes of abilities depending upon the basic kind of operation or activity involved. A group of cognitive abilities have to do with discovery or recognition of information. They are ways of understanding or comprehension. A parallel group has to do with retention of information. Two parallel groups are concerned with productive thinking. Given certain information, we not only understand it but we can generate from it some new information. An important new distinction is that between divergent production and convergent production. In divergent

production the goal is to produce a variety of ideas, all of which are logically possible in view of the given information. In convergent production the conclusion is completely determined by the given information, or at least there is a recognized best or conventional conclusion. A fifth group has to do with evaluation, which, in more familiar ways of speaking, means critical thinking. We continually evaluate what we know, what we recall, and what we produce by way of conclusions.

A completely different classification of all the abilities cuts across the first. It is in terms of the kind of material in which the information comes. Some information is concrete, being in the form of things that we can see or hear. We may call this kind of material "figural." Other information is in abstract form, either in the form of symbols such as letters, words, and numbers, or in the form of the things for which they stand—meanings or ideas. The two categories are called "symbolic" and "semantic," respectively. A fourth content category, "behavioral," has been added on the basis of theory only, to take care of the obvious information that we have concerning the behavior of ourselves and of others: our thoughts, desires, and feelings, and intentions, and those of other individuals.

Still a third cross classification is concerned with products of information. These are forms in which the individual casts his information—units, classes, relations, systems, transformations, and implications. The

technical meanings of these terms are so close to their common meanings that they will not be defined here. Their applications in connection with reading will be pointed out later.

One more word should be said on the "structure of intellect" as a system before taking the next important step in this discussion. When the three cross classifications are combined in the three-dimensional model, the intersection of a certain kind of operation, a certain kind of content, and a certain kind of product, is represented by a single cell. Each cell is expected to represent its own kind of ability, whose properties can be stated in terms of the three category concepts to which the ability belongs.

For example, there is an ability to cognize semantic units, which has been generally known as "verbal comprehension," and which is tested by means of a vocabulary test. It is the dominating ability represented in tests of verbal intelligence. Another ability can be described as the divergent production of semantic transformations. A simpler, prior term for the ability has been originality (in dealing with ideas). There are other such abilities for dealing with kinds of content other than semantic. Semantic originality can be tested by asking examinees to give a list of titles for a short story and by counting only the number of clever titles in scoring their work. To gain numbers of clever titles the examinee must have some drastic changes (transformations) of his conception of the story and in the meanings of words that he uses in titles.

There are 120 cells in the structure of intellect as now conceived, and at present we know only half as many intellectual abilities. It is expected that future research will bring to light others. The greatest doubt pertains to the behavioral category, for which no abilities have as yet been segregated. But it seems reasonable that "social intelligence," which the behavioral category no doubt represents, will break down into a number of different abilities and that this breakdown will be along the same lines that apply in the other content areas. At any rate, in later discussion this will be assumed.

Cognitive Abilities in Reading

Reading, when fully developed, is one of our most complex intellectual activities, involving many of the intellectual abilities, which we may also regard as intellectual functions. It does not begin that way in the young child. The preschool child has had considerable experience with visual forms, including letters, which he learns to discriminate. At this stage he is applying, and also perhaps developing, his ability to recognize visual figures, an ability that fits into the cell in the upper left corner of the structure of intellect. His readiness to start learning to read depends upon this basic ability.

In learning to recognize combinations of letters in syllables and words, the child depends upon and perhaps develops his ability to cognize symbolic units, the ability in the next cell to the right. Unusual reading difficulty may stem from a special weak-

ness in this ability. The average IQ test should not be expected to predict progress in this particular respect, since this symbolic ability is not represented in the usual IQ test. Obtaining meaning from the printed symbolic unit involves abilities in the semantic column, first the meaning of single words, which is a matter of word recognition or recognition vocabulary. This is the aspect of reading development that is best predicted by an IQ test. But there is more to reading than recognition of word meaning. If we follow down the column of the semantic abilities in the cognitive category alone, we find a number of ways in which meaning can be enriched. There are relations to be understood, also class ideas. Sentences and paragraphs offer systems of ideas to be comprehended. Poetic and other literary writings, particularly, offer transformations of meanings and vague hints of implications that must be completed by the reader if he is to understand and enjoy his reading to the fullest.

Reading and Productive Thinking

Reading for understanding and enjoyment is a worthy objective and one that satisfies perhaps the great majority of those who read. There are multitudes of others, however, for whom reading is a means to other intellectual goals. The student who learns the material of his subject-matter courses largely from reading, and the scientist who enlightens himself about the discoveries of his fellow scientists, must go beyond comprehension. Even the reader who in-

indulges for his own enjoyment, if he is at all philosophically inclined or if he enjoys making his own reactions to the thoughts of others, must do more than understand. All such individuals need to acquire skills in taking off from what they read into flights of thought of their own making.

Good teachers, of reading or of anything else intellectual, have always taken advantage of opportunities for the student to exercise his thinking equipment. Good teachers have felt their responsibility to contribute to the intellectual development of their pupils, whatever the subject matter. When we look upon the pupil's intellect as being an organized collection of distinguishable skills, each with certain properties, we are in a good position to decide what kinds of exercises are needed to develop those skills. These statements imply considerable faith in the possibility of developing intellectual abilities, including thinking abilities, through exercise. Until we learn something to the contrary, it is best for us as educators to proceed on that assumption.

From the learning theories that have been propounded by psychologists over the years, we have derived little in the way of substantial suggestions on the training of intellects. The prevailing model of behavior has been that of stimulus-response associations. The learner has been conceived as something on the order of a vending machine. You put in a certain coin and a certain thing comes out. Such a model has worked

very well in instruction such as teaching the numerical operations. But even there, some added comprehension of the principles involved would be very desirable. Comprehension of principles is a matter of cognition and takes us at once beyond the stimulus-response model.

The major types of thinking, as indicated by the structure of intellect, are divergent production, convergent production, and evaluation. We shall now consider the possible relations of the thinking abilities to reading. In part, whether the reading material stimulates productive thinking on the part of the reader will depend upon the nature of the material. The teacher can therefore encourage pupils to think in response to their reading by selecting the more provocative materials. Does the material stir the imagination of the reader, and does it leave something for the reader to do? Does it open up alternative inviting avenues that would suggest divergent thinking? Does it, in other instances, carry the reader along step by step in logical sequences that point toward an inevitable conclusion? Such material should provide exercise in convergent thinking. Does still other material challenge belief and call for checking and testing of facts and arguments? Such material should automatically call for critical thinking or evaluation.

Even when the reading material does not itself obviously induce these types of thinking exercises, the alert teacher who is not a stranger to ingenuity will invent ways of turning

that material to good use as the basis for thinking exercises. Skillful questioning should do the trick, as all good teachers know. Can the awareness of the abilities in the structure of intellect suggest types of questions that might be asked? Perhaps a survey of the possibilities represented in the semantic column, in connection with the two production categories and the evaluation category can suggest kinds of questions that may have been slighted. Let us consider a few examples.

Some Generalized Thinking Tasks

The examples to be given come directly from certain psychological tests that are known to indicate each ability, or from ideas of new tests that should be expected to indicate the ability if it is still unknown. In the latter case, we can readily suggest such tests by analogy to other tests for parallel abilities. In applying each task that is mentioned, the teacher will need to think of similar tasks and questions that can be utilized incident to the teaching of reading as a procedure for exercising each ability.

The divergent production of semantic units describes an ability more commonly known as "ideational fluency." This is the ability to produce a quantity of ideas in limited time in response to a specification of some kind. For example, we ask the examinee to name all the objects that he can think of that are white, hard, and edible, or we ask him to list all the uses he can think of for a common brick. In either case, the num-

ber of suitable responses given in a limited time is the score.

The ability to produce a variety of class ideas is indicated by a test called Unusual Uses. An item reads: "A newspaper is commonly used for reading. What other uses can you suggest for it?" The answers might be: "To swat flies," "To line shelves," "To wrap garbage," "To stuff packages," or "To make up a kidnap note." Notice that each response is in a quite different category.

The ability to produce a variety of responses involving relationships can be assessed by a test called Associational Fluency. The examinee is told to list as many words as he can which mean about the same as the word "high." In another test the examinee is given two words and is asked to state a number of different ways in which they are related, for example, the words "man" and "daughter."

The hypothetical factor of divergent production of systems has no known tests as yet, but it is expected that a test in which we give the examinee several facts and ask him to state a number of different problems that could be involved would apply. Another possible semantic system may be a story plot, in which case we might ask, given the same list of characters, what different story plots could reasonably apply.

As stated earlier, the divergent production of transformations means originality. This can be tested in a number of ways, one way having been mentioned earlier. In another test we ask the examinee to write "punch" lines for cartoons. In an-

other we ask for clever interpretations of riddles. In still another we ask for simple symbols to represent meaningful words, such as "ring" and "bell," in the sentence "Ring the bell."

The divergent production of implications involves elaboration upon given information in different directions. One test presents the bare outlines of a plan (as for a school function) to which the examinee is to add as many details as he can. In another test we give a simple line or two, which the examinee is told to make into a familiar object. He is scored in both instances in terms of the number of additions he offers.

The convergent production area of abilities offers less exciting activities, but the development of carefully reasoned conclusions has always been recognized as an important objective in education. In each task that indicates abilities of this kind, we call for one right answer, or a best or most conventionally accepted answer. In the case of the production of semantic units we have an ability known as "abstraction naming." The examinee is presented with objects of a class, to name the class, or with two objects in relation, to name the relation.

A test of the ability to produce unique classes presents a list of perhaps a dozen words that the examinee must put into three classes, using all the words and putting no word in more than one class. This is in contrast to a test for divergent classification, in which the examinee must reclassify words in as many ways as

he can, using each word as many times as he wishes.

Items of the following types indicate the ability to produce unique responses involving relationships: "What word means the exact opposite of *cold*?" "What is the wife of a king?" "Fish is to water as bird is to what?" In each case only one best answer is accepted.

The production of a unique system can be tested by calling for arrangement of given events in their most reasonable or optimal order. The events may be presented pictorially, as by using the scrambled pictures of a cartoon strip, or verbally, as in stating several steps involved in changing a tire, planting a new lawn, or building a dog house. Temporal order is one kind of system.

Transformations in the semantic area involve shifts of meanings or uses of objects. "Which of the following objects could be most reasonably used in making a needle: onion, book, fish, wheel, pansy?" The bone of a fish, when given an eye, would serve the purpose. "What more complex object could be made by combining a coil spring and a basketball?" This could most clearly be a punching bag. An object or part of an object must be redefined in order to use it in some new way.

Unique implications are fully determined conclusions. The item might be: "Frank is older than Jim and younger than Sam. Who is older, Jim or Sam?" Many readers who enjoy detective stories probably like to indulge in this kind of reasoning, and they probably want their stories

to be logic-tight so that unique conclusions are possible.

In the evaluative or critical-thinking area we are less certain of the basic abilities, but most of them that are known are in the semantic column. In the case of figural or symbolic units we have two abilities that apparently have to do with deciding whether two given units are identical or not identical. One might give two proverbs, or a proverb and a non-proverb expression, the examinee to say whether they express the same idea. We are not sure, as yet, what kind of evaluation or standard may pertain to the judgment of classes.

The evaluation of semantic conclusions where relationships are concerned rather clearly involves the standard of logical consistency. Given a syllogism, with two statements of relationships and several alternative conclusions, one of which is determined by the premises, the examinee is to say which conclusion is sound.

In the evaluation of a system two criteria or standards are found to apply. One is whether the system is complete, and the other is whether the parts are internally consistent. In one test we show a simple picture, the examinee to say "What is wrong with this picture?" In one picture the doorstep is missing from the house, and the smoke from the chimney and the clothes on the line are flying in opposite directions.

The ability to evaluate transformations has often been called simply "judgment," or sometimes "commonsense judgment." Tests that

seem most suitable for it involve decisions as to which improvisations are best. Workability seems to be the standard or criterion.

Evaluation of implications or evaluation involving implications represents a very interesting kind of ability. When first found, it was called "sensitivity to problems." One test asks the examinee to give two things that are wrong with such common devices as telephones, toasters, or refrigerators. Another asks what is wrong with social institutions such as tipping and divorce. Being sensitive to defects and deficiencies is the apparent quality involved. The sensitive person has evaluated unfavorably, and the person who sees no defects has evaluated positively the implication that things are all right as they are. The former feels problems still exist, while the latter feels they are solved.

In the short space of this article it has been impossible to bridge the gap between the kinds of exercises presented by tests of the semantic factors and teaching operations in the subject of reading. It is hoped, however, that a systematic exposition of the varieties of general thinking skills will be sufficient to extend the boundaries of conceptions of thinking activities and also to delineate each kind of thinking skill clearly enough to enable the average teacher to observe it and to help the student cultivate its development.

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Productive Reading-Thinking at the First Grade Level

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THAT THERE is not enough reading for meaning is a canon of contemporary criticism often wearisome in its repetition and often blind in its application. The implication that there can be reading without resultant meaning sets unreasonable limits to the function of reading. It is a half-truth that tends to confuse the unthinking as well as the uninformed.

Possibly the idea that productive reading is a process closely akin to productive thinking has always been held by good teachers. Probably it is a concept held by mature readers as a result of wide experience in reading for many purposes and in different materials. Certainly it is a concept that authorities in reading as well as psychology have always expressed and advocated.

But the thought that productive reading-thinking involving the setting of purposes, reasoning while reading, and evaluation can be done by six-year-olds, or children in first grade, puzzles some and confounds others. Generally, children become lost in the word learning maze of initial reading instruction. Unwarranted attention is often given to memorizing words, to drilling on phonetic skills in isolation, to oral reading and re-reading, and to a telling of the story. Then, too, some teachers are of the opinion that six-year-olds can not think critically and

cannot be trained to do so. In fact, the story is told that during the late forties, when the National Council of Teachers of English were drafting the new English curriculum, one college professor of English recommended that nothing be done about critical thinking at the elementary and high-school levels. To think critically, he said, was a skill to be acquired in college.

Although the above is an absurd proposal, it is almost equally as absurd to be of the opinion that six-year-olds cannot be taught to do productive reading. The following illustration of a first-grade group in action should help to dispel such opinions.

In this first-grade classroom the teacher used both a group approach and an individualized approach to differentiated reading instruction. For the group sessions she had identified four groups, with each member of each group at about the same instructional level.

The group in the action described here was the teacher's second group, or, as she put it, her "average readers." Group instruction was being directed in a first-grade basic reader. To be sure that each story was new or unknown to the children, the books were stored in a closet and brought out only during the teacher-directed reading session.

The story for the session was

entitled "A Newspaper Helps" and was located in the fourth unit of the book on pages 119-124.* Six new words were introduced in the span of six pages. This made the ratio of new words to running words 1:72. In addition, each new word was introduced in a meaningful and appropriate way to fit the communication demands of the context. Because of these facts, plus the fact that this group had already been taught certain word-attack skills of phonetic and structural analysis, the teacher did not write the new words on the board to be studied before the reading of the story. She wanted the children to meet the six words in the rich content of the story and have them use, if necessary, their word-attack skills under her supervision.

First Purpose-Setting

The teacher directed the group to turn to the Table of Contents and read the name of the story located on page 119. Then she asked, "What do you think will happen in the story?" The results of immediate speculation seemed logically possible. Some of the ideas were: "Perhaps a newspaper is used to train a dog. Maybe a family finds a place to live by using a newspaper. The paper may be used to wrap some toys. Maybe the paper is folded and used as a fly swat." Already interest was running high.

Next, the group was directed to turn to page 119, to study the picture for possible clues, and then close

their books. New speculation was adjusted quickly in keeping with the new information provided by the first picture. (The picture showed three boys looking in a puzzled way at a small black dog.) Ideas now given were: "The boys look worried because this is a strange dog. The dog didn't listen to them and they will use a newspaper to train him. The boys are wondering whose dog this is. They want to play ball and the dog gets in their way."

The group was eager to get on with the story to find out whose ideas were right. So the teacher directed them to read only the first page and then to close their books.

The pupil-purpose setting was the first step on the reading-thinking road. They had sized up the picture situation and evaluated the title. Ability to look ahead—to anticipate next steps—is a skill possessed by almost all typical six-year-olds and is used by them constantly in their day-to-day living. What was done here was to provide training in looking ahead in a reading situation. To be able to select and weigh and balance available beginning clues, in terms of ultimate story outcome, represents an important reading-thinking skill.

It took but a minute or so for all to read the page. Now the teacher observed a key teacher responsibility—she honored the pupil purposes, not by asking questions about the details of the story but by asking "Who was right?" The boy who had proposed that the dog was strange and the boys were worried immedi-

*R. G. Stauffer, *et al. Away We Go* (Philadelphia: John C. Winston, 1960).

ately raised his hand. Then he read orally the lines that proved his point. All agreed, and again a major reading-thinking skill was being refined: knowing whether or not the answer to a question has been found.

Second Purpose-Setting

Another brief speculation session followed after a quick look at the two pictures on the next two facing pages. (One picture showed the boys talking to Mother. The other showed the boys scanning a newspaper.) Ideas now presented were: "Mother tells them to go find the dog's owner. The boys look in the morning paper to see if someone has lost a dog."

Again, reading was done and posture, facial expressions, and occasional audible responses readily showed that the children were reading for meaning.

Checking on their purposes was accomplished by the teacher's initiating question: "Which idea was right?" This time none of the speculations had been completely accurate. The boys, at the mother's suggestion, had run an ad in the paper about the finding of a little black dog.

Third Purpose-Setting

This time the teacher suggested that purposes be set without looking ahead. So, in light of the evidence or information so far accumulated, the children set purposes. Ideas now presented were: that the owner would show up and claim the dog and reward the boys, that the owner might not show up, and that the dog would run away again.

The predictions showed that the pupils were half-way through the story. As they reflected over events to date, reconstructed them, and re-evaluated them, the pupils were putting to work an excellent thinking-learning technique. They were learning the value of reflective judgment as contrasted with naïve and blind plunging ahead. As they read on, it was interesting to note how the pupils read the next two pages and how they examined the pictures. They were searching all sources of information in an effort to find clues to the possible fate of the lost dog.

When all were finished reading, the teacher once more asked, "Which ideas were right this time?" Now the children were a bit puzzled. The two pages had not answered their questions but they had given new information about the dog. This little black dog apparently was a trained dog. He could do tricks.

Fourth Purpose-Setting

Ideas about how the story might end again reflected the degree to which these young minds grasped and evaluated the information so far presented. Because the dog could do tricks, some pupils felt very sure that the owners would be looking for the dog. One boy felt that the dog had learned the tricks on his own because he had always been a runaway dog. Some thought the owners would not turn up because they would have missed seeing the small-town newspaper and would not know that the dog had been found.

"On with the story," said the

teacher, "and see who is right." The last picture showed the boys, the mother, the dog, and two strangers. The man seemed to be giving the boys some paper, but not money. The reading was done rapidly.

A check quickly revealed that the pupils who had predicted the owners would show up were right. What they had not anticipated—and this is what held their interest to the end in this well-conceived plot—was that the dog was a circus dog, especially trained to do tricks. Again, lines were read orally to prove points. A short discussion followed on how wisely the boys had acted, and on the use of newspaper ads. All the reading and discussion so far had taken twenty minutes.

The end of the story was a good time to check on concepts and story understandings. Because the story was well written, the pupils could understand and enjoy its development and outcome. Now, at the end, was the time for refinement.

A good story is likely to evoke many ideas and questions which can send the reader beyond the story. When the reading of a story is directed as a reading-thinking process, the readers will invariably be stimulated to seize upon every opportunity to learn more. All this means that going beyond a basic reader story should be a natural and almost an integral part of all group-directed reading.

In Conclusion

Thus, here have been considered some of the steps to productive reading and thinking. This rather de-

tailed description of one directed reading-thinking session should have shown that it is wrong to think that enthusiasm and clear thinking cannot go hand in hand. To the contrary, enthusiasm is indispensable for achieving clear thinking — be the resulting decisions great or small, immediate or remote.

Also shown was the age-old concept that effective skill-training is best accomplished under the watchful eye of an experienced teacher—one who has the skill to direct training as occasion or need demands. A person with such ability must be both resolute and informed.

Shown too was the fact that it is not enough to say that an answer has been found in a story. Proof must be produced. Pupils must learn to support constantly their statements of fact with specific proof. This directed reading activity required such performance.

Some boys and girls perform like some men and women. They are ready to present opinions unsupported by facts. They do this because they are constantly influenced by the beliefs and modes of behavior of the people around them. So, to establish in children the definite habits and emotional tendencies of sound thinking, training must be initiated early and must be vigorously continued.

It is especially important that those who concern themselves with the instruction of others be clear about what they are doing. As long as pupils can be helped in a firsthand, face-to-face situation, little difficulty

should arise in promoting the habits of sound productive reading.

The roots of reading behavior must be very deep in the tradition of sound thinking, if boys and girls are to mature as rational individuals. A rational person is one who seeks answers, requires proof, and is aware that reasonable persons could have different beliefs. Persons so prepared can be deliberate and tolerant in their use of ideas. Rationality gives them, in turn, an authority and assurance that come only from knowing and doing.

Major types of thinking as declared by Guilford elsewhere in this issue of *THE READING TEACHER* are divergent production, convergent production, and evaluation. And, as he says, whether the reading material stimulates productive thinking by the reader will depend in part upon

the nature of the material. It will also depend upon skillful questioning or directing of thinking on the part of the teacher. To this is added another thought: it will depend upon the degree to which pupils see clearly and declare openly purposes and problems.

The reading-thinking lesson described in this article and the supporting discussion should then, to a degree, provide answers for Guilford's four questions: Do the material and the teaching stir the imagination of the reader, and do they leave something for the reader to do? Do they open up alternative, inviting avenues that would suggest divergent thinking? Do they carry the reader logically forward step by step to an inevitable conclusion? And do they challenge beliefs and call for proof of facts and arguments?

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Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process

by JUNE OPPENHEIM
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AN AFTERNOON early in October finds this primary teacher concluding a meeting with two Room Mothers who have come to plan a parents' meeting for our first- and second-grade group. In the elementary school our first and second grades work together in groups of twenty-eight to thirty children in a common homeroom. So a mother at each grade level is asked to plan with the teacher (one of five at the primary level) concerning the year's activities for children and parents.

The foremost interest of parents is the reading program. Since reading is also the major emphasis of the school at the primary level, I am glad to have a part in the first meetings of the school year. The October meetings have been scheduled as separate groups so that the teacher may talk with the parents in some detail concerning reading instruction at each level.

This article is a digest of the ideas for "Reading as a Thinking Process," presented in these two October parents' meetings.

Some of the mothers here have spoken to me regarding the importance of teaching reading as a pleasurable activity. But also there has been a concern that our children be trained to *think* of what they read and to develop some critical thinking about their reading.

This has been a concern of mine too, and surely the child must find a purpose for his reading, whether he is a beginner or reading with the fluency of a twelve-year-old, though he is just seven and in the second grade.

The common major purpose of our first graders is wanting to read, and reading means reading from a book. So they are motivated to work at the mechanical skills necessary for them to unlock words on the page. This work is fun because they constantly discover that the "strangers" are in reality "friends" of long standing: six-year-olds have been *saying* such words for a long time.

There must be mastery of a sight vocabulary, observing words and phrases in one-line reading units, structural analysis of words, phonetic skills, context clues, association of meaning with words on the printed page (or the visual image of the word on the printed page). And so the vocabulary growth continues as each child masters these perceptual skills.

But the primary teacher knows that each child is learning to use the materials of *thinking* as new concepts broaden his experience (4). He realizes that reading is not just a mechanical procedure. From the very first day it has been a thought-getting process. The pictures on the pages of

the pre-primers were saying things to the reader; the storybook characters were saying things to each other.

Of course the reading experiences make the first-grader remember comparable events in his own life, and he can scarcely wait to tell the group about them: the funny thing his baby sister did at home, the time he tried to hide from his dog, when his family went to the park to feed the ducks, recalling to the group their walk last week to see "signs of fall."

Sometimes such conversations are carried over from the reading time to Show and Tell. And sometimes the teacher writes reminder words on the board just like grown-ups using notes in a speech.

A first-grade book is being written right along with our reading of the pre-primers. The stories come from the children as they remember experiences comparable to those of the storybook children.

"Debbie has two teddy bears. One is named Tim. One is named Jim. She sleeps with Tim but keeps Jim at the foot of the bed." "Mary Ann is making a family book. Here is her father. Here is her mother. Here is her sister. Mary Ann has a brother, too."

Second graders in turn read monthly "volumes" of last year's Daily News. In the morning before school some children will chuckle as they read and remember something funny from last year. Or they will call their friends over for a do-you-remember-when session. Such reading promotes growth in the interpretive skills.

One year we visited a farm in October. It was a sunny warm day, and the children did everything: saw baby pigs and a brand-new calf, ran through the corn field and gathered ears to bring home, got on the big, red tractor and took turns riding a gentle horse, and enjoyed a picnic lunch in the meadow. After the farmer took them to gather eggs, our starry-eyed group started home. On the way we stopped near a field of pumpkins and bought some for our room.

Discussion groups had prepared reading charts before the trip, about such things as what we wanted to see, how we were to get to the farm, the expectations for ourselves as visitors, the signs of fall we might expect to see.

Following our trip further reading times were provided: writing and reading the thank-you letter to the farm family, charts recounting our funny experiences on the farm, the things that were new to us, our feelings about the baby animals (and theirs about us). Since our room has second graders too, the first-grade children gained much experience in reading "beyond themselves," because this was a group activity in which motivations and purposes for all were keenly felt.

Another year small groups of children went with their parents to visit various Chicago "institutions." The places to be visited had been agreed upon at school in preparation for planning and building a miniature city. It was to be the part of Chicago most familiar to our boys

and girls—Marshall Field and the library, over to the Prudential Building on Lake Shore Drive, then south to include the Art Institute, Buckingham Fountain, the Planetarium, Museum of Natural History, Grant Park, Soldier's Field, Meig's Air Field, Michael Reese Hospital (parents on the staff), Museum of Science and Industry, to Fifty-ninth Street and west to include International House, our school and playground, Rockefeller Chapel, Billings Hospital, and various apartments and the shopping center in the area.

Later there was a vast amount of reading done on the institutions of their choice. The children read city stories in many supplementary books, also other materials about Chicago.

Again children were involved in many perceptual experiences leading to associative thinking—thinking that becomes much more than repetition and drill, important as certain types of repetition and drill may be in the reading-thinking process. These children were learning that thinking goes on in every class period. They had to become problem solvers if they were to construct the city their plans indicated. The visits to various buildings, the reading, and the memories of previous construction experience would prepare each child for his part in the project.

Of course there was creative thinking at work here too. The problems could not be solved by "reproductive thinking" (1). This particular project had not been done before. An important aspect of such a project is discovery by the children that read-

ing can be a tool. Reading may satisfy the various needs of the moment: to find information, to find out how to do something, to enjoy stories and poetry, to further interests (and discover new ones). But such a tool cannot be useful unless thoughtfully *used*. Many such concrete experiences lead into further reading-thinking tasks.

If a child is to learn to read creatively then he must think creatively. If he is to read critically, then he must learn to think critically. Such reading is not likely to occur in two twenty-minute periods during the day, nor with the basal text as the only material.

At the second-grade level the daily reading schedule provides time for "free reading." This is interpreted as reading for enjoyment with no compulsion. The free reading period is scheduled in the library twice a week, and on other days books are brought from the library to be read in the classroom. The regular thirty-minute teaching period in reading comes daily while the first graders are having Physical Education. Our first graders go home at noon, leaving the afternoon for more academic work with the second graders. Thirty minutes is given to Developmental Reading with second graders divided into nine different reading groups, since kindergarten teachers help with the afternoon reading program. Children can then read at the level at which they are best prepared and feel most comfortable. These are oral reading groups. The reading materials lend themselves to oral interpreta-

tion, to the development of literal meaning (what does it *say?*), of inherent meaning (what does it *mean?*), or of inference. The groups remain flexible with some children shifting frequently from group to group. Occasionally there is a fruit-basket upset and teachers as well as group members are moved about. This changes the emphasis on materials, skill-building techniques, and gives the children increased experience in group discussions arising from related story experiences or concerns about the outcome of a story.

We are fortunate in having many sets of supplementary readers at various levels in each primary home-room. A set of *Britannica, Junior* and various dictionaries (picture types, Thorndike, Jr., and Webster collegiate) are in constant use. Children's magazines, newspapers, and many books of fact and fancy are in the elementary library, to be checked out for weekly periods.

First-grade children, too, check out books for parents to read to them. As soon as the pre-primer stage makes them feel they can read, books at a proper level are taken home to be read over and over again before they are returned. Such stories read many times help to reinforce concepts necessary for further understandings in reading.

Bulletin boards, frequently changed, give emphasis to social studies projects, science interests, changing seasons, holidays, and to a special corner called "The First Grade Reads." Here are found items of particular

interest to first graders: a recent group story, a riddle, a question from the teacher, a "surprise" for those who can read it. The devices are guaranteed to motivate young readers. Even first-grade children can learn to read by phrases and thought units, rather than word by word, which leads to no thinking, no ideas at all.

I have not included games in the materials for a reading program which stresses critical and creative thinking. It has been my experience that there is not very much transfer from games for memory of facts, etc., to reading with meaning and interest. Such reading comes from thinking and discussion rather than from rote processes.

It is of equal importance, it seems to me, to permit the child to realize that reading does not begin and end in a classroom, in which he reads from ten to ten-thirty each morning. Reading is reading whether it be in magazines at home, books in a library or bookstore, on traffic and advertising signs, on the many signs in a grocery store, or in books at school. Reading can be a source of information, exciting adventure, hilarious fun, or visits to the land of fantasy and magic. But always reading will be idea-getting and reactions to those ideas.

Reading and thinking are interwoven; a successful reading program can scarcely teach one without the other. One writer has said that the intellectual stimulation which comes through reading is one of the best aids to creative thinking (1).

Creative thinking may take place in each reader's understanding and interpretation of a story in which he must organize materials to come to some conclusion. At the first-grade level we are encouraging creative thinking when, before we turn the page, the children are asked, "What do you think will happen *now*?" Later we can encourage the *children* to ask questions which will lead them to find relationships among certain facts and thus come to a logical conclusion.

Such thinking can also be encouraged through other creative activities which may have their origin in reading. In our room creative writing of various kinds has been most successful in both group and individual efforts. A dictated group story became a very successful Christmas puppet play for parents. This was indeed creative thinking on the part of each child. Each time the play was given the "character" said what he pleased so long as it was within the plot of the story.

A summer school group became so interested in the correlation of their reading materials with our visiting animals (turtles, frogs, fish, newts) that they wrote a play. The play involved some fantasy, but care was taken to keep to facts about animal habits and environments. Wooden stick puppets and scenery were made—another puppet show on the way. But this was different. There was reading each day as new play material came "off the press." Finally we had "readers" for each person managing a puppet and creativity was on

its way in a most popular television performance.

Our children learn the mechanics of handwriting at the beginning of second grade, and by December their own story writing has begun. Last year the group decided to put their stories and poems into books (collections of adventure stories, fairy tales, poems and riddles, single-story volumes, etc.), build a book store, and sell their books to parents and friends. The proceeds were to go to CARE for book packages for primary children in a needy European school. Creativity literally paid off when three ten-dollar book packages were sent to Italy.

Teaching children to read critically involves using a wide variety of reading materials. Because of the lack of experience, of concepts, children have developed little of the necessary judgment for criticism. They need help in this area.

First graders can develop some critical reactions to stories from questions they can understand: How do you think this story will begin? (or end?) What do you think will happen to when we turn the page? Could this story really have happened?

As we move into more maturity in second-grade understandings, the questions become more challenging: Why do you think acted as he did in the story? If you had been 's father what would you have done? What was the most important part of the story to you? Such questions can be considered in the regular reading time or following

stories read or told by the teacher.

A second-grade book written before 1945 takes a family across the United States to see the many different parts of "our great land." I use this book with reading groups which I feel have a good bit of background (verbal, reading, and experience) for the discussions which I know will come. The style of writing, the nationalistic concept (ours would seem to be the only "great country"), the propaganda issue, generalizations that are too broad are attacked by the children in discussions that get pretty serious. Then criteria are drawn up for some judgments on future reading. Copyright date has a very real meaning here.

Second graders learn to think critically when they read their own stories to the group. The student reader gets a chance to listen to and reflect on the comments of the group. In future stories he may find some of the ideas useful. The other children get a chance to listen to the story and to think about what the writer has tried

to do. Each child decides what the story means to him. As a matter of fact, he may try out in his own stories something heard in the group. If the children are to think critically, time must be taken for such discussions. These sessions cannot be hurried if they are to guide the way to critical listening and reading.

The teacher's job, then, is to set situations in which such thinking, discussion, and evaluation by the children may take place. This calls for careful planning since a wide variety of materials and a flexible amount of time are essential elements in this approach to the teaching of reading.

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Secondary School Reading as Thinking

by RUTH STRANG

● COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

BROADLY DEFINED, reading involves physical factors, thinking, and feeling. Thinking is implicit in every aspect of reading. To recognize words one must perceive likenesses and differences, and must be aware of the relations between letter sounds and printed symbols. Understanding of word meaning depends on giving proper weight to each part of the word, as E. L. Thorndike pointed out in 1917 in his article, "Reading As Reasoning." For example, giving undue weight to the first two syllables of the word *majority* led one youngster to define it as "the greatest general of them all." Similarly, in order to comprehend accurately the literal meaning of a passage, one must see relationships and give proper weight to each word, phrase, and sentence.

It is important not only to find out what an author says, but also to think about why he says it. Thinking is involved in arriving at generalizations, drawing conclusions, and making inferences and applications. As the reader recognizes that a given concept is similar to ones he has encountered previously, he may arrive at a generalization. When related ideas are evaluated, a conclusion may emerge. When they are used as a basis for speculation, inferences may be formulated. When the reader relates certain concepts to his life experiences, he may apply them to

his own uses. In every instance thinking brings order to the material read, or creates new patterns out of it.

All these aspects of reading involve some feeling tone. The reader may feel satisfaction in being mentally alert and in accomplishing his purpose. He may feel pleasure or displeasure, satisfaction or annoyance with the content or the style. He may approve or disapprove of the author's ideas. Sometimes he will find his emotions aroused by some incident or character that the author describes. These feelings may either facilitate or hinder the thinking process.

Both thinking and feeling are involved in an individual's personal development through reading. For example, in discussing a detective story, *Buttons*, the teacher asked, "What clues do you find to the mother's character?" Students pointed out details indicating that she was reluctant to let her son grow up, that she jumped to conclusions, that she was a quick thinker, that she was jealous of his girl friend. The teacher followed up the first point by asking, "If the mother is overprotective, how might that affect Ernie?" And one student replied, "Children don't appreciate it when the mother does all the thinking for them."

In high schools today we find that students represent a wide range of reading ability—from nonreaders to

some who read as well as superior adults. Contrary to general opinion, thinking is involved in teaching all kinds of students to read.

Word Recognition as Thinking

That thinking is required in phonic analysis is illustrated by the experience of a group of nonreading pupils of high school age. In reading their own stories these pupils were having difficulty with certain small words.*

Teacher: Which of these words begin with *w*?

Pupils: *Went, what, when.*

Teacher: Which one of these words begins with a sound different from the two others?

Pupil: *Went.*

Teacher: Think of three words that begin with the same sound as *went*.

Pupils: *Water, wash, wish.*

The teacher wrote these words on cards and asked the pupils to analyze the way each one is built, while they listened carefully to its sound. A similar study was made of *what*, *when*, and *they*. After the pupils had practiced these words and had reread fluently the story in which they had initially encountered difficulty with them, the teacher again called their attention to the purpose of this practice in phonic analysis by saying, "You see, it's important to know the little words that cause many people trouble in reading."

Reasoning is also involved in teaching other word recognition

skills, as in the following lesson with able learners:

Teacher: You have just begun to write books about yourselves. What do we call books people write about themselves?

Pupil: *Autobiography.* (Teacher writes it on the board.)

Teacher: This is an interesting word. With what smaller word does it start?

Pupil: *Auto.*

Teacher: What other words start the same way?

Pupil: *Automatic.*

Pupil: *Automobile.*

Pupil: *Autograph.*

Teacher: What do you think the first part of the word means?

Pupil: *Self.*

Teacher writes *automaton* on the board to challenge their newly acquired learning: Can you think what this word means?

Pupil: *Self-starting.*

Pupil: *It goes by itself.*

Teacher: If you know the "key" to a word, it helps you get the meaning. You recognize the same part of a word in a number of different combinations.

That every step in unlocking the meaning of unfamiliar words requires thinking is illustrated by the following teaching experience. The teacher mentioned the problem, common to good as well as to poor readers, of discovering the meaning of words one does not know. He presented the sentence: *He is an iconoclast.*

Teacher: What word would you have difficulty with?

Pupil: *The fourth:*

*For some of these illustrations the author is indebted to Mr. John McInnes' demonstrations in the summer High School and College Reading Center, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Teacher: Is there any clue in the sentence as to its meaning?

Pupil: *He*.

Teacher: What does that tell us?

Pupil: That it is a person.

Teacher: If we added a few words to the sentence we would have better clues: *He was an iconoclast who undermined the boy's belief*. What are the key words here?

Pupil: *Undermined* and *belief*.

Teacher: What does *undermined* tell you?

Pupil: That he took away the boy's foundation or faith.

Teacher: What kind of belief might it be?

Pupil: Belief in God.

Teacher: Are there any clues in the word itself that make you think it's belief in God?

Pupil: My uncle brought an icon from Russia, and it's an image of Christ.

Teacher: Do you know any other word that has *clast* in it? (No answers.)

Teacher: *Idoloclast* is quite similar to *iconoclast*, but is not as commonly used. Let's try the dictionary. What does it say about these two words? What does the last part, *clast*, mean? What does the whole word mean? Give us some sentences using *iconoclast*. Who are the iconoclasts today?

In answering these questions the students related *clast* to the Greek *klao*, *break*. They discussed the more specific meaning of *idoloclast*, and noted how the meaning of *iconoclast* had been extended from the breaking of an image to include the destruction of almost any faith or belief. They referred to "the angry young

men" as iconoclasts of today.

Each of the word recognition skills—context clues (4), structural analysis, phonic analysis, and even the use of the dictionary—requires seeing relationships and making judgments as to the relevance of similar forms or meanings to the word in question.

Skills in Locating Information

In exploring a book of short stories with a group of seriously retarded teen-age pupils, the teacher encouraged thinking by saying: "Let's look at the index. What kind of stories are there in this book? What kind of stories do you like best?"

Pupil: Adventure stories.

Teacher: What are adventure stories?

Pupil: Something exciting happens.

Teacher: Are there adventure stories in this book? Look through the book and judging by the titles and pictures find an adventure story. Then tell us why you think it is an adventure story. You can pick out the one you'd like to read first.

This exercise gave these youngsters practice in setting up and applying a criterion for the selection of interesting reading material.

Locating sources of information on a given topic may require an amazing amount of thinking.

It is easy enough to say glibly, "Select the material relevant to your topic," but many students need specific instructions in how to do this. For these students it is helpful, as McCullough pointed out (7), to go over a passage, sentence by sentence,

asking such questions as, "Has this anything to do with? What has it to do with it? What shall we put down as part of our answer to this question?"

Second, there are many questions concerning the authenticity and reliability of the source. Is the publication date recent enough so that the material may include new developments on the topic? Is the author's purpose to give full and impartial information or to support a preconceived conclusion? Is he an authority on the subject? Does he distinguish between fact, reasonable opinion, and unsupported conjecture? Can his statements be verified? On what basis were the judgments made? Does the author have some special bias? Does he make exaggerated claims?

Differences between opinion and fact can be brought out by having a class give their snap judgment on a current news item, and then collect, organize, and relate facts that have a bearing on the item. A second opinion poll will show how the added information has changed the first impression. This experience shows the class that there is a great difference in the quality of opinions, depending upon the nature and amount of the evidence that supports the opinions.

Certain common errors may be found in source material: generalizations that go beyond the facts, reliance on a single authority rather than a representative range of authorities, and explanation of results by reference to a single cause

rather than by reference to all possible causes.

Third, critical thinking is constantly necessary in the process of extracting content that is related to the topic and the reader's purpose.

Advertisements provide excellent material for practice in critical thinking. Television commercials can be presented in class and critically analyzed: What "persuasive" or "color" words are used to give certain impressions? What attention-getting devices are used? What things or ideas are associated with the product to enhance its appeal? What claims are made but not substantiated? Pupils may do experiments to test the accuracy of some of the statements. From this analysis of relatively obvious propaganda, the students may go on to the more subtle "slanting" that occurs in newspaper headlines and editorials. They may also consider the viewpoints implicit or expressed in history books, and eventually analyze the effectiveness and appropriateness of the figures of speech used in poetry.

Skimming Skills

In skimming one must think about the purpose for which the skimming is done: to find a specific date or fact, to survey the organization of a chapter or article, to note the main ideas, to get a general impression of the topic. The first kind of skimming requires little thinking; it is somewhat like looking for a four-leafed clover. In the other types of skimming one must select relevant ideas and relate them in the desired form

or pattern. This process often requires more concentration than would be necessary in a slower, more careful reading of the same material.

Outlining and Summarizing

Outlining and summarizing are exercises in thinking. Questions help to direct the pupil's attention to meaning. If the teacher finds gaps in the pupil's outline, he may take the opportunity to offer instruction in methods for identifying important ideas. As preliminary practice the students may be asked to arrange separate sentences or paragraphs in logical order; this will show his ability to grasp the relations between ideas.

Paragraph Comprehension

Paragraph reading can be an exercise in logical reasoning. The main idea of the paragraph is its premise or conclusion. The reader examines the evidence given in support of the premise or conclusion. To do this he must follow the organization of the passage as he reads. Once he has exposed the framework, he must determine whether the argument is valid by appraising each bit of evidence and each opinion. When he has a clear idea of what the author has said, the reader is able to distinguish between the author's ideas and those which the passage has evoked in his mind. Consider the following:

1. "The United States today faces a serious challenge to its basic, fundamental concept. If any nation, even when there is need for caution in a period of anxiety, displays irrational

fear and loss of nerve, and ignores the denial of human rights and the sublimation of national principles, that nation is losing its moral courage. In our time, we place censorship over the free play of intelligence upon issues, we foster the urge and tendency to turn the spirit of free inquiry into indoctrination and restraint of criticism, and we tolerate without protest sweeping attacks upon education. A crisis is upon us."

The main idea of this paragraph is expressed in both the first and the last sentence; it is a conclusion that is reached by deductive thinking. The major premise of the argument is included in the second sentence and can be stated thus: "All nations which exhibit fear and restrain liberty are nations which are losing moral courage." The minor premise, found in the third sentence, is that "the United States is a nation which exhibits fear and restrains liberty." This minor premise is supported by induction: the author lists three things which, in his opinion, show that we are exhibiting fear and restraining liberty. The conclusion can now be restated: "The United States is losing moral courage."

The organization of the paragraph is now clear. What are its implications? Does "facing a serious challenge to its basic concept" mean the same thing as "losing moral courage"? The author implies that it does. If it does not, the syllogism is not valid and the conclusion is not true. The author presents acceptable evidence of fear and restraint of liberty, but what about his assump-

tion that a nation which displays fear and restrains liberty is losing moral courage? This is questionable. The author does not, in this paragraph, propose a solution or call for action. If the reader takes this additional step, he should be aware that this is his thought, and not the author's.

2. "Loyalty, whether to country or other individuals or to ideals, is a personal thing. Most truly loyal Americans are quite rightfully offended when their loyalty is not taken for granted. The person who should be suspect is not the reluctant oath-giver but the one who all too readily and glibly proclaims to everyone within earshot that he is impeccably loyal. The faithless husband is the one most likely to protest too much about his fidelity to his wife. But the faithful husband, badgered by a nagging wife, is more likely to affirm his loyalty only with the sort of distaste that breeds contempt."*

Here the main idea is expressed in the third sentence: "The person who should be suspect is the one who all too readily and glibly proclaims his loyalty." The author seeks to support his argument by drawing an analogy between faithfulness to one's country and fidelity to one's wife. He makes the generalization that all loyalties have one factor in common—they

are personal, but he does not mention their differences. His implication that the unfaithful husband and the disloyal American will behave in the same way does not stand up under critical appraisal; therefore the argument must be rejected.

Comprehension of the Whole

Different patterns of thinking are required for different school subjects. In the social studies one must follow sequences of events and discern cause and effect relations. This kind of thinking may be stimulated by such questions as these: "How has the geography of the country influenced the character of its people?" "How have events in the history of the country affected conditions there today?" Scientific materials, as Russell (8) pointed out, "are often organized around some principle or law . . . in health [the writer] is usually making applications of known facts."

To encourage students to think while reading a story, such questions as these are helpful: "Why did this boy want a car?" "Read the part that tells what kind of a person he was. Do you think he knew much about cars? What evidence do you have of this?" "What has happened in the story up to this point?" (This question involves telling the events in the story in logical sequence.) "What do you think happened next?"

Reading an article demands reasoning from start to finish. The source of the article—editorial page, news page, advertisement, textbook, or popular magazine—gives the reader an initial clue to the purpose for

*These illustrations of the application of formal logic to the analysis of prose arguments were given in an unpublished paper written by Captain Philo A. Hutcheson in the author's course in the improvement of reading in high school and college at Teachers College, Columbia University. Captain Hutcheson has shown how the teaching of logic may help to improve the higher-level reading skills that are so important in our life today.

which it was written. By examining the title he may get further clues as to what to expect. From the first paragraph he sometimes gets information about "who," "where," "when," and "how many." In the succeeding paragraphs the reader may find elaboration or support of the ideas introduced in the first paragraph. In a final paragraph he is likely to find the author's conclusions, which he should compare with his own conclusions as he forms them after a reflective and critical reading.

Conditions Favorable to Thoughtful Reading

Reading is most likely to be a thinking process under the following conditions:

1. When there is a problem to be solved, a story to be interpreted, a question to be answered; under these conditions the reader has a mind-set to read in a thoughtful, purposeful way.

2. When the reader has time to review what he already knows about the problem and to think while he is reading.

3. When the reader receives instruction and practice in the techniques of reading critically and determining the precise meanings of words.

4. When pupils have a chance to discuss what they read; group discussion alerts them to the need for critical reading and rewards their efforts to read thoughtfully.

5. When pupils are encouraged to relate their experience to their reading.

6. When pupils have not been lulled to passivity by the effortless entertainment provided by television, radio, and other mass media where the thinking, such as it is, has all been done by the producer.

7. When examination questions can be answered only by thoughtful reading.

Each reading task requires a different kind of thinking, depending on the material and the reader's purpose. Life is too short to make a detailed, logical analysis of every paragraph. Overemphasis on critical interpretation may make some meticulous pupils overmeticulous.

On the other hand, thinking makes reading exciting, and opens doors into the adventurous unknown. It enhances the delight and satisfaction that one may obtain from books.

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A Critical Reading Laboratory

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THE YOUNG people we teach today belong to the most highly propagandized generation in the history of the world.

Words! Words! Words! From the television screen, from newspapers, from books, from billboards, from flaring advertising spreads, stimulus after stimulus makes its impression upon the minds of our students—shaping what they think and moulding what they do (2).

Clear, penetrating thinking was never so vital as in these times. Is it not ironical that in an age of bewildering and complex problems the forces that inform us should also confuse our thinking? Are we not strengthened in our conviction that training in critical reading is one of the most effective counter-forces, one of the compelling needs of the present, and one of the hopes of the future?

If we are to meet our urgent responsibility to students we must have materials which are current and which challenge reflective thinking. Standard equipment in our high school reading center is a Critical Reading Laboratory, a collection of materials for practicing sound reading-thinking techniques. During the study period my students and I read with scissors in hand—searching. If we find a false analogy, a conclusion that lacks proof, a passage in which name-calling runs riot, a statement

wrenched from its context, into the file it goes. Our practice materials are live, thought-provoking, and as timely as today.

The Critical Reading Laboratory is similar in appearance to commercially-prepared reading laboratories, and has their eye-appeal. In format it is an attractive box with colorful and inviting contents. The box is simple to make. Pockets of bright-colored construction paper on a white drawing-paper background house the clipping collections. Explanations of procedures of sound thinking (removed from books and workbooks and bound in folders or slipped into plastic envelopes*) head specific sections. In compiling materials for the laboratory I have drawn heavily upon Richard D. Altick's *Preface to Critical Reading*, both the 1946 and 1956 editions, for introductory explanations of techniques of sound thinking and for exercises close to the interests of students. The material is suitable for superior high school and college students. I am indebted to Dr. Altick for many of the ideas expressed in this article.

Questions to Haunt Students

Divisions of the laboratory are captioned with questions—questions which, it is hoped, will haunt the minds of students throughout a life-

*Durable plastic envelopes may be secured from Bro-Dart Industries, Newark 5, New Jersey.

time of reading: *Is There a Hidden Motive? Who Would Want You to Believe This? Has the Writer Proved His Point?* The Critical Reading Laboratory will have served its purpose when students ponder these and other questions as they read, when they accept only with considered judgment, when, though constantly bombarded with the words and ideas of others, they come to enjoy the luxury of making up their own minds instead of having their minds made up for them. Six representative divisions of the laboratory will be discussed here.

Is There a Hidden Motive?

Here is the introduction to the section of the laboratory intended to develop awareness of the author's purpose:

"Cultivate an attitude of alertness to the writer's purpose, and you have taken a long step in the direction of maturity in reading and thinking.

"It is well to ask, 'What is the author's purpose? Does he have a hidden motive for saying what he does? Does he wish to sway you for or against some nation, race, or religion? Does he want your support in behalf of some policy or practice which is to his advantage? Will your uncritical acceptance of his point of view result in his financial gain?'"

"In searching for hidden motives we shall examine excerpts from newspaper and magazine writings, from publications of business and industry, from reports to Congress, from TV news broadcasts and round-table discussions, and other sources.

"It is possible that the writer is using subtle, even sly, persuasion to gain your uncritical agreement. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that he is writing from the most earnest conviction, seeking to win your support for a cause in which he sincerely and honestly believes.

"In either case, it is well to cultivate the attitude of being alert to the writer's motive, then thoughtfully weighing the pros and cons for yourself. Such an attitude will help you enjoy throughout your reading lifetime the not-to-be-taken-for-granted privilege of calling your thoughts your own."

Students bring clippings and ask classmates to weigh the possibility of hidden motives. And the resources of the laboratory increase and multiply.

Surely the laboratory itself should not reflect bias. It is well to balance an appeal by the AFL-CIO for public housing with one by the National Association of Real Estate Boards against it.

Who Would Want You to Believe This?

When the question *Who would want you to believe this?* alerts students as they read, they begin to show immune reactions to the influence of propaganda (5).

As another section of the laboratory is introduced, these questions are raised: Who stands to gain if you accept without question what you are told in the statements that follow? Who wants you to believe or act as the passage suggests? Who will profit—what individual or type of indi-

vidual? what organization? what interests? (5)

Statements like this are critically examined: "We know that most of the wealth and income of the country is owned by a few large corporations, that these corporations in turn are owned by an infinitesimally small number of people, and that the profits from the operations of these corporations go to a very small group. . . ."*

Does the Writer Speak with Authority?

Students accustomed to accepting as sacrosanct anything that appears in print will become more discerning when they realize that a great part of what they read comes from persons with no special right to make pronouncements on the subject at hand (1).

Dr. Altick in his *Preface to Critical Reading* proposes these questions to help students pierce to the truth or falsity of a piece of writing: "Says *who*? Does the writer know what he is talking about? Are his statements based upon study and observation and experience? Why is he saying what he does?"

Exercises stimulate group discussion: How much attention should be paid to the pronouncements of the following writers on the stated subjects? Why? (1) Thomas Henry Huxley (great English biologist and popularizer of science, died 1895) on electrical waves. (2) The world's

champion heavyweight boxer on who should be elected President of the United States. (3) Carl Sandburg on Abraham Lincoln. (4) The President of the National Association of Manufacturers on a proposed law to curb union activity in politics.*

With *Says who?* uppermost in mind, classes evaluate authorities:

1. Students select from the *Reader's Digest* an article calling for specialized knowledge of its subject—medicine, international affairs, aviation, etc. Using such references as *Who's Who*, *American Men of Science*, *Living Authors*, they try to determine the qualifications of the writer. Then they do the same with an article from *Harper's*.

2. Pupils consult a specialist in each field to find out how such popularizers as the following are regarded by experts: Paul de Kruif (bacteriology and medicine), John Gunther (contemporary history and world affairs), Rachel Carson (marine biology).

3. Classes investigate the bias of political commentators whose columns appear in the newspapers of their town or city, try to differentiate between sensation-mongers and writers with a sense of social responsibility, and report their appraisal.

Has the Writer Proved His Point?

In a section of the laboratory captioned *Has the Writer Proved His Point?* students are introduced to the techniques of deductive and induc-

*Final report of the executive secretary of the Temporary National Economic Committee of the Seventy-seventh Congress.

*These exercises are reprinted with permission from Richard D. Altick's *Preface to Critical Reading*, 1946 edition, pp. 114-115, and 1956 edition, pp. 178-179.

tive logic.* *What's wrong with this thinking?* becomes the watchword as classes test their skill in detecting the weak link in a chain of reasoning. With searching questions they analyze examples of the deductive process: Are the premises valid? Is this a case in point? Does the conclusion necessarily follow? Are the terms correctly and consistently defined?

Classes examine the reasoning which underlies this example from *Toward Reading Comprehension* by Sherbourne (page 18): "Communists teach that we should attempt to do away with poverty throughout the world. Professor X teaches that we should do away with poverty throughout the world. Therefore, Professor X is a Communist."

Sherbourne comments: "It would be just as sensible to argue as follows: Communists eat. Professor X eats. Therefore, Professor X is a Communist."

As we turn to the techniques of inductive reasoning attention is directed to these questions: Are terms correctly and consistently defined? Is there enough evidence to justify the conclusion? Is the evidence sound? If causation is involved, is there a possibility of more than one cause or of a different cause? Students cull examples from their own reading and ask classmates to search out the fallacy: "Hydrogen bomb tests took place in July. Tornadoes

and hurricanes followed. Such tests are upsetting the weather." "We are constantly seeing newspaper reports of teen-age thefts and vandalism. Young people are utterly lawless."

What Kind of Evidence Would You Require?

As we examine the inductive process students consider the type of evidence they would require to be convinced that such statements as the following are true: "Because of television, high school students spend far less time than they used to in reading for pleasure." "Cigarettes are a major cause of lung cancer."

The Influence of Advertising

When the critical reading of advertising is introduced class groups consider the important contribution of advertising in placing in a great showcase before us the abundance of America—and the soundness of much of that advertising. Then we reflect on the question: But how are we being moulded by certain types of advertising—toward maturity or immaturity? "Your friends will envy you. . . ." "Be the first in your social set to own one." "The mark of the man of distinction." "Luxurious. . . ." "Elegant. . . ." "Exclusive. . . ."

How are these persuasive words shaping our psychological growth? Are we maturing as human beings if we accept the advertisers' criteria for prestige and success with which we are assailed almost every waking hour? (2)

Class groups read, or hear about in comments of the teacher, material

*Teachers are sometimes at a loss how to bring the complex deductive and inductive processes within the range of student understanding. The clear explanations in *Toward Reading Comprehension*, by Sherbourne, and in *Preface to Critical Reading*, by Altick, should be helpful.

from Harry Overstreet's *The Mature Mind*. An excerpt, "What We Read, See and Hear in the Ads," bound in a manila folder, prefaces the division of the laboratory on advertising: This preface says, in part: "Advertising is one of the most continuous psychological forces in our lives. . . . It is as though we were surrounded by a vast army of salesmen, each struggling to win our attention; each with something to show us. . . . Advertising halts our psychological growth to the extent that it makes us do too much wanting and makes us want things for the wrong reasons. . . . The easiest emotions for the advertiser to tap . . . are those related to our fears, particularly our social fears; our hunger for attention and prestige; and our frustration-born pleasure in outdoing someone else. These are not our most mature emotions. . . ."

Ads tapping our less mature emotions soon placard the classroom—some alluring with bright beckonings toward a life filled with ease and free from worries, some appealing to such social fears as the fear of being different or left out, of being criticized by others, of not making a distinctive appearance, some relating to such social desires as seeking status through the ownership of "things" or wishing to see ourselves "not as maturely equal with others, but as the focus of attention and envy" (2, page 224).

As classes compare the bright promises in advertisements with the

unbiased appraisals in such magazines as *Consumer Reports*, they learn that the product most attractively advertised is not always the best bargain. Clippings reporting the objective laboratory findings are pasted on the advertisements, often in revealing contrast.

A Warning

We profit little if we leave our students with questions substituted for convictions. The maturing student-reader should realize that "plenty of truth remains in the world—there is no dearth of things for him to believe or to believe in" (1, page 103).

Believing nothing is as little to be desired as believing everything. Across more than three hundred years, Francis Bacon's counsel is as timely as today: "Read not to contradict and refute; nor to believe and take for granted . . . ; but to weigh and consider."

The world's destiny is being shaped by words (1). What more challenging responsibility is ours than training students who can weigh them?

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Directing Reading Comprehension

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SINCE THE function of reading is to satisfy some purpose, or to solve some problem which necessitates the using of reading as a means, it would seem to be obvious that the development of reading skills which lead to the required end must form a basic element of any reading program. These skills may be used singly or in various combinations according to the nature of the purposes involved.

If the selection of the skills required is based on the purpose, it follows that the purpose must be clear to the reader before he begins to read. This implies that most directions and comprehension checks should be placed at the beginning of the passage which is to be read, and the reader should be instructed to read them first. In other words, the reader starts from something which is known and proceeds to deal with the unknown content in these terms. After all, the aim of teaching reading is to develop proficiency in satisfying some specified reading purpose accurately and economically, and to spend no more time on the reading than the purpose requires.

Some reading skills are only meaningful if the question, problem, or purpose is clearly stated at the beginning. Skimming, for instance, is a search or locational skill, which is used to find that part of the material

which deals with the point of importance. Key-word or key-phrase reading becomes meaningless unless the reader starts with some knowledge of what he is seeking, for words have little intrinsic importance, and only become significant in terms of some purpose. Words are key-words with reference to some problem or purpose, and unless the reader knows the nature of the problem or purpose he will not be able to select the words he needs to read.

The writer cannot speak with reference to other educational systems, but it is probable that the most generally used method of checking comprehension is to use unseen, and therefore unknown, questions. Such a procedure gives the answering of certain questions as a purpose, and invites the reader to read with this end in view. It does, however, omit to tell him the specific nature of the questions.

In a situation where one wishes to force the development of accurate reading for details, with the reader quite clear that he must read everything since he may be questioned on any part, the procedure of using unseen questions is a valid method of developing comprehension. This is especially true if rereading is not permitted: the function of the unseen question is to determine the amount remembered on a single reading. If

one is allowed to reread without a time penalty, there is no point in setting unseen questions. The reader may as well know what is required before he starts.

Constant use of the unseen question method, other than in the situation mentioned, or in a comparable situation, is quite likely to retard reading development, and it might do this in the following ways.

If most of the comprehension checks appear in this form, the reader is likely to believe that this is the basic method of reading, and he may fail to realize that one reads different materials in a variety of ways according to different reading purposes. He will come to believe that the only way to read is to begin at the beginning and read slowly through, attempting to memorize everything. A transfer of this method to all reading produces slow, inefficient, and uneconomical reading, usually with poor comprehension.

Secondly, the habit of clarifying one's reading purpose before beginning to read is likely to remain undeveloped, because the reader has faced too many unknown or "mystery" reading tasks to have obtained any real practice in setting his own reading goals.

Thirdly, the reader will not develop adequate sensitivity to selecting important from unimportant parts of the material he reads, for to him everything will have potential importance. Selective reading will be almost nonexistent.

Fourthly, the reader will not develop multiple reading skills, since

he will not have been presented with tasks requiring variety of purpose and method. In the main the "conversion" skills which permit the translation of a true reading rate into an "efficient" rate of coverage in terms of a given purpose will not be used.

One could, of course, extend this list. It seems clear, however, that unless most questions, and other comprehension checks, are placed so that they are read first, readers are not likely to become active and purposive in their approach to reading. The writer has had this illustrated in working with adults (3) and university students (1, 2). These people have come through a system which has accepted the principle that reading instruction is carried out in the primary school only, and mainly along the lines of detailed reading for comprehension based on unseen questions. No deliberate attempt has been made to develop more advanced reading skills. It is very difficult to persuade them that the basic premise in reading is to begin with some purpose, no matter how unstructured this may be, and to convince them that the amount of material to be read and the skills to be used are determined by this purpose. Placing the questions at the beginning, together with the instructions, produces immediate gains in comprehension and rate. This method puts the purpose in the mind of the reader and not in the mind of the teacher. So long as the purpose remains in the mind of the teacher, reading instruction is reduced to a

(Continued on Page 211)

An Effective Aid for Teaching Reading

by SHIRLEY C. FELDMANN,

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IT WAS the first time he had really done any extended, fluent reading."

"It stimulated the greatest spontaneous interest of any work so far."

"He became so interested that he lost himself in the story and forgot his reading problem."

These were the words of reading teachers who had just found in the pupil they were tutoring that first spark of interest and enthusiasm which can sometimes carry a retarded reader to continued gains and eventual success. The materials which had generated this spark were stereoscopic pictures and a teacher's story which accompanied them.

Sets of stereoscopic color transparencies are available commercially in a wide selection of topics. These picture-sets are used with a small, hand-held viewer which magnifies the pictures and makes possible a natural and comfortable viewing of the three-dimensional effect. The possibilities of such stereoscopic picture-sets as a resource in teaching reading were recently explored at the Elementary Reading Center at Teachers College, Columbia University. At the Elementary Reading Center, graduate students, most of them with considerable teaching experience, give individual remedial

instruction to retarded readers of elementary school age.

Picture-sets for three stories were used in the initial work: (1) "Hunters of the Plains" (a series on the life of the Plains Indians), (2) "The Wizard of Oz," and (3) "Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea." The picture-set for each of these stories contained twenty-one pictures, and came accompanied by a small folder describing the pictures or summarizing the story.* The material in this folder was generally much too difficult for the children working at the Elementary Reading Center and was not appealing in appearance. The short captions printed on the cardboard mounting of the pictures were also too difficult for most of the children, and were too short to be very helpful in telling the story.

Since the written materials which had accompanied the picture-sets were not suitable, two new types of written materials were prepared: (1) slightly longer but very simple captions, (2) a simply worded story.

*The picture-sets used were the familiar "View-Master" reels, sold at many variety, photographic, and department stores. These "reels" consist of stereoscopic color transparencies mounted in cardboard discs. Seven stereoscopic pairs are mounted in each reel. There are other commercially produced viewers and picture-sets which are quite similar to the "View-Master" materials.

The captions were typed in large type on 3 x 5 cards. The story was typed in large type and bound in covers of heavy cardboard hinged with masking tape much as the "Little Golden Books" are bound. The title and the picture from the envelope which originally had contained the pictures was cemented to the cover of the book, and a pocket to hold the pictures was placed inside the front cover. The children seemed to enjoy the fact that this material they were reading successfully was in the form of a real book. The text appropriate to each picture was typed on a separate page. Generally, a few lines were sufficient to tell each event of the story. The small amount of text on each page seemed to make the books more appealing to retarded readers.

The experience of the teachers at the Elementary Reading Center in using these materials with individual pupils seemed to justify the following generalizations:

1. The stereoscopic transparencies were apparently more vivid and "real" to the children in the Elementary Reading Center than are the typical pictures in children's books. The three-dimensional pictures produced increased personal involvement in the story.

2. Reading the books, and particularly the captions, was not regarded as a typical "reading situation" by many of the children. They read with less self-consciousness, greater security, and greater willingness to try than usual.

3. Such materials have great po-

tential as a stimulus to self-expression. Several of the children were told that the materials were experimental, and they were asked for criticisms and suggestions. A number of these children wrote a complete set of captions or a new story of their own to go with the pictures. Other children made their own books to go with additional picture-sets of this type which they had at home. They then enjoyed reading their own stories to other children while these other children were looking at the pictures.

Since the materials seemed to have value with retarded readers, it was decided to try them also in the typical classroom situation. Prior to testing the stories in the classroom, they were revised on the basis of the suggestions given by the children in the Elementary Reading Center. Also, it was thought that if two or more versions of the same story were prepared on different reading levels, the story could have wider use in classroom or tutoring situations.

Consequently, the "Hunters of the Plains" story was rewritten on two difficulty levels, and a story for a fourth set of pictures, "Peter Pan," was written on three different levels of difficulty. In keeping the stories simply written and in varying the difficulty systematically, Arthur Gates' *A Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades** was found very helpful. In writing the simplest ver-

*Revised and enlarged edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Other standard vocabulary lists, such as those found in basal reader series, could be used in place of the Gates list.

sion of the "Peter Pan" story, for example, an effort was made to use only those words listed among the first 500 words on the Gates list. For the version of medium difficulty, the vocabulary was chosen from the first 1,000 words on the list, and, for the most difficult version, the vocabulary was chosen from the entire list. For each version the names of the characters and the expression of certain essential ideas required a slight deviation from the desired vocabulary limitation. At the back of each book the vocabulary level of the book was given as well as any special words needed for the story but not included in the appropriate section of the Gates list. Sentence structure was also kept as appropriate as possible to the desired reading difficulty.

The stories were written as naturally as possible. Mere description of the pictures was avoided. In using the stories at the Elementary Reading Center it had seemed that pages which narrated the story were read with more interest and understanding than pages which told the story by describing the pictures.

Members of a graduate class at Teachers College who were classroom teachers were asked to try out a few of the books and picture-sets in their classrooms. Five teachers, representing grades 4, 5, 6, and 8, participated in the study, each using the materials for about two weeks.

The teachers were asked to use the materials in whatever way seemed most appropriate for their own classes. One teacher used an approach which seemed particularly

effective. She first used the materials in individual remedial work with a boy from her class. She then asked him to introduce the stories to the class. The boy, who had learned to read the stories well, read the books to a friend while the friend looked at the pictures. The friend then read the books to another child, and in rapid succession the rest of the class was using them. Another teacher showed his class the book and pictures for one story and later put the other stories on the reading table unannounced. The class soon discovered them, and the materials were quickly in circulation.

In some classes children used the materials individually rather than pairing off to use them. Usually, the poor readers read only the books on the lowest reading level, while the better readers liked the more complete account given in the harder versions.

The children in all the classes seemed genuinely interested. In one class where the books were given only to the slow reading group, the members of the other reading groups continually borrowed them when they were not in use. The materials were well received even in the eighth grade class, although they were intended for much younger children. Many follow-up activities came spontaneously after the materials had been used. Some children did considerable background reading in the process of preparing stories for their own picture-sets. A number of children went to the library to borrow the original books.

All of the teachers were enthusiastic about the picture-sets and books, and wanted to put other materials like them to immediate use.

The materials which have been described made use of commercially-prepared picture-sets. The pictures as well as the text, however, could be original and appropriate to the individual classroom. Those teachers or classes who can take their own stereoscopic color transparencies with one of the new stereo cameras can illustrate completely original stories or reports. The children in a class play or on a field trip, or the displays in a science exhibit might be the three-dimensional models. Ordinary

color slides miss much of the advantage of an appearance of depth and reality, yet they could be used in a similar way. Appropriate text could be typed on cards and photographed with the subject or on separate slides.

The enthusiastic reaction of both children and teachers at the Elementary Reading Center indicates that the stereoscopic color picture-sets, used with attractive and appropriate accompanying text, can be effective and stimulating aids for reading instruction. Alert teachers will find that many other familiar materials can be adapted and utilized to add vigor and meaningfulness to classroom reading.

(Continued from Page 207)

guessing game, in which the reader always comes off second best.

One might hope, therefore, to find fewer reading tasks headed, "Read this passage and then answer the questions at the end. Do not reread," and more tasks headed, "Read the following instructions and questions, then read the passage which follows and answer the questions." Gradually the reader will develop facility in setting his own purposes and may need only exercises instructing him to select the main idea, the writer's mood, the significant subordinate

ideas, or, in certain cases, to read for important detail to answer a problem. Such an approach is more likely to develop independence of reading and, with the aid of specific exercises and instruction, develop a variety of reading skills.

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The International Reading Association in Australia

by DAVID H. RUSSELL
● UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA,
BERKELEY

THE FIRST word in the name of our organization is rapidly becoming a meaningful reality. The large annual meeting in Toronto added to the international flavor of the Association, and a committee on its work in foreign countries has been formed. To this must be added the recent formation of three councils in Australia and the tremendous interest there in reading problems.

What are a Fulbrighter's impressions of Australia? Perhaps all of us should have some ideas about that country if we are to welcome that part of the world into our Association. And so—

Australia seems a new country. It is not unlike the United States in the first years of the twentieth century. It is in a period of rapidly expanding industrial enterprise and higher standards of living. Like the United States of a generation ago it is quickly absorbing people of diverse national backgrounds. Since World War II Italians, Greeks, Dutch, Poles, and other peoples have come to a land of opportunity so that now one out of every seven persons a visitor meets on the street has arrived since 1945. I visited some schools in which nearly half the children were "New Australians." This influx of people has added variety and spice to the culture and life of the country—including its cooking.

Australia is a land of strong urban-

rural contrasts. One third of its ten million people live in two cities, Sydney and Melbourne, and one half the population is in five cities, with Perth, Adelaide and Brisbane added to the first two. Sydney, for example, is a teeming metropolis of two million people, which can show some American cities a few things in the way of traffic problems. And yet most of the country is sparsely settled and the wastelands and spaces are vast. This condition has helped create the flying doctor service and the education-by-radio programs which are known in this country. For several days the Russell family visited a sheep "property" about five hundred miles west of Brisbane. This was a "station" of 26,000 acres—and that is a comparatively small one. In a world rapidly becoming overcrowded one is perhaps reassured a bit by the wide spaces of Australia.

Other impressions crowd thick and fast—a friendly, hospitable people, an interest in things American, an attachment to British origins, beautiful coasts and beaches enjoyed by all the people, strange animals. After seeing not only kangaroos, but also wallabies, koalas, echidnas, wombats and a platypus one's concept of "marsupial" is much enriched. But an article in this journal should probably deal more with reading than with kookaburras, bell birds, or lyre birds.

As in the United States, education in Australia is largely a state function. Each state has a central office staff which tends to exercise more control over teacher placement, curriculum, materials, and buildings than is usual in this country. Each state has a course of study or syllabus which suggests methods of reading instruction and a prescribed series of texts in the primary, and sometimes the intermediate, grades. In some cases these texts have been prepared by state committees and printed by a state agency with results somewhat inferior to the best books available today. Despite the possible dominance of a central agency there seemed to me to be a tremendous interest everywhere in problems of children's reading. Although educational research is in the process of developing adequate support and influence, a number of studies at the action or operations level are influencing practice. The Australian Council for Educational Research is trying out new reading and language tests. The state of Queensland has just completed a comparison of children's reading attainments under a system emphasizing early phonics instruction and one relying more on a combination of methods. Some of the schools in West Australia under the departmental director of research are experimenting with the SRA Reading Laboratory as a means of basic reading instruction.

Further information on reading activities and research will be given in this journal in an article by Mr. Rupert Cochrane of the Remedial

Reading Clinic of the University of Queensland. Everywhere there seemed to me to be a stirring of interest in reading instruction and an attempt to get some answers from research for the solution of current problems.

More specifically, I had the pleasure of attending and speaking at three meetings of reading councils of the IRA, two of them initial meetings. The first meeting was at Claremont Teachers College in Perth, West Australia, where the council had already been formed under the leadership of Miss May Marshall of the college. More than in other cities visited, I sensed here a desire on the part of teachers to bring parents into some phases of planning children's reading activities. Accordingly, Nancy Larrick's *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading* was warmly welcomed, as it was in other places. Indicative of the potential help of parents was another meeting I addressed in an auditorium of the University of West Australia. It was attended by some six hundred parents, and you should have seen the stack of questions handed in at the end of the talk.

The second council meeting was an enthusiastic one in May of some seventy-five people in Sydney, New South Wales. A diverse group of elementary and secondary teachers, clinical workers, central office staff, and editors of a pupils' paper discussed problems they were facing and the necessary steps in forming a council.

In July, a winter and school

month, a smaller group of some thirty people met in Brisbane, Queensland, and decided to go ahead with organizing a council. More than in other centers, in-service work is being done here by the University of Queensland through its graduate program for students working on higher degrees and through the Reading Clinic. Professor Fred J. Schonell, Chairman of the Department of Education and director of the clinic, is known to American members of the Association through his writing and research in the field of reading. It is dangerous to generalize, but everywhere in Australia I found what I believe is a genuine need for more in-service work for teachers and other school personnel such as has been started in Brisbane. The problem of getting many teachers involved in problems of reading instruction and some action research in solving these problems is a considerable one.

In this brief description, however,

I do not want to stress problems so much as the positive opportunities that exist in Australia for the improvement of reading instruction. Somehow our Association should be able to provide some of the vitamins needed here and perhaps in other parts of the world. *THE READING TEACHER* is our most important agency at the moment for providing nourishment of ideas and leadership in instruction. Schools and children need more professional books and many more "library" books for children. What other materials or services should we be providing to this and other parts of the world so that we are truly an international association? Perhaps our members can travel more. Long ago St. Augustine wrote, "The world is a great book of which they that never stir from home read only a single page." If you go to Australia you'll meet some good "coves" or "blokes," you won't feel "crook," and your visit will be "bonza."

Third National Library Week April 3-9, 1960

The Steering Committee for National Library Week has announced April 3-9 as the dates for the observance in 1960. This will mark the third year of the reading promotion program which is sponsored by the National Book Committee, Inc., a non-profit independent citizens organization, in cooperation with the American Library Association.

Reports on the 1959 National Library Week program show that more than 5,000 communities participated. The reports reflect increasing participation through local schools, clubs, libraries and merchants, as well as wide cooperation on the part of broadcasters, newspapers and magazines.

Concerning Methods in Learning How to Read*

- THE FRENCH EMBASSY
CULTURAL SERVICES
NEW YORK CITY

AMONG THE problems which education poses, one of the most controversial still remains that of learning how to read, or, to be more exact, the choice of the method to be used in the teaching of reading. In France, the controversy is not solved by official texts which, in fact, do not recommend either method; certain recent inquiries have shown that in the case of six-year-old children, the results are the same irrespective of the method employed.

Learning to read presents a special problem: how can one help a child to grasp the connection between the written and the spoken word? The host of books entitled "Methods in Reading" (the list of books authorized by the Ministry of National Education currently comprises some 367 different books) would lead one to the assumption that there are numerous methods. In reality, however, there are only two. These are: the *phonetic method* which starts with the simple and abstract element of the letter and the sound, and the *sight method*—sometimes referred to as the Look and Say method (or the mixed method) which is based on

the selection of a group of meaningful words from the sentence.

The phonetic method which trains the mind to work from the single graphic sign towards a combination of signs or symbols and thence to the deciphering of words and the understanding of them, proceeds along the lines of synthesis. On the other hand, the sight method which starts with visual and auditory perception of a group of signs and ends with the discovery of syllables and letters, proceeds along the lines of analysis.

The Phonetic Method (called synthetic or traditional)

Since the end of the XVIIth century, when its principle was first established, this method has undergone many modifications; yet it still remains faithful to its basic principle: to proceed from the simple to the more complex, which means from the letter to the syllable, from the syllable to the word, from the word to the sentence. Under the influence of the less austere conceptions of education, the invention of different procedures will slowly add a little color to this rather dry method, starting at the first stage, i.e., that of learning the letters (Pestalozzi, Mme. Montessori, etc.). At the second stage, that is the passage from the letter to the syllable, the pro-

*This article (an extract from a longer article) is reprinted by permission from *Education in France*, which is published for free distribution four times a year by the Cultural Services of the French Embassy, 972 Fifth Avenue, New York 21, New York.

cedure known as "de Port Royal" substitutes the spelling *bee, cee, dee* for *be, ce, de* since the ear accepts it more readily. In the nineteenth century, Madame Lagardelle, basing her theory on phonetic science, subdued the silent *e* which the teachers of the Port Royal school placed after consonants. There are still memories of combinations of letters forming all possible syllables, while the procedure of sliding a series of vowels in between consonants, before and after them, still plays an important role in a number of schools. The third stage of this method brings us finally to the reading stage, that is, to the awareness that the writing conveys a message and that it is a form of language. However, for a while the child reads without understanding the meaning of the words, and the chain of ideas escapes him until such time as his mastery of mechanics frees his thoughts.

These are the logical stages of the development of the method through synthesis. However, in order to gain an exact idea of its current use, one must take into account the modifications, and the efforts made to combine the acquisition of technique with a simultaneous understanding of the material read. Thus, for instance, one no longer waits until all letters have been mastered before starting the study of syllables, or for a thorough knowledge of all syllables before tackling the words. The chief difficulty with which the teacher is faced is the composition of a text which contains only such letters and syllables that are already known to

the child. Some authors introduce into their texts—which are composed in accordance with the requirements of the method used—certain words which are to be read at sight: *un, est, il, elle, etc.* . . . they obtain in this manner stories which can be read quickly and with understanding.

One could not fail to recognize the solidity of the results obtained by this phonetic method, and if it is at times somewhat irksome, it can be animated in the hands of capable and imaginative teachers; however, it remains formal and aims essentially at the acquisition of a technique and often foregoes the educational benefits involved in learning to read.

The Sight Method

(called analytic or new method)

When speaking of the sight method in France, one refers less to an integral sight method than to a mixed method, which starts off on a "look and say" footing. Known since the VIIIth century, and practiced in the Latin countries (countries whose language is of Latin origin) right after the First World War, and then in Anglo-Saxon countries, it was established by Dr. Decroly in 1921. With this method, the child becomes active, he must discover by himself the mechanism of reading, from the concrete he passes over into the abstract. To our adult minds, the letter may seem easier than the word, but specialists in child psychology have unanimously declared that the first perceptions of a child, prior to his powers of analysis, tend towards whole images. The new methods of

learning to read do not limit themselves to the acquisition of a technique, but they also insert themselves into a general plan of education which stimulates the child's activity by a constant call to the child's interest.

Being able to sight-read at the first stage presupposes a choice of theme which will list simple sentences and a choice of words which will form these sentences: in the nursery school these choices remain very liberal, but after the primary school stage, the need for methodical and progressive acquisition often implies the addition of an illustrated book. Drawing, writing, games of identification, frequent revision [review?][—]these are the main procedures used by the sight-method of reading. The most characteristic stage of the method is analysis. One must let the discovery of the key to reading operate spontaneously in the children without interfering too soon—the synthesis then verifies the analysis which is the last stage in the acquisition of the mechanics of reading. The teachers who use the sight-method do not need to follow a fixed program as much as they need to seize favorable opportunities; they must give confi-

dence to the child's interest and to spontaneous working of his mind.

The use of new methods has had a disquieting effect on the partisans of traditional methods who hold them responsible for suppression of effort and, in particular, for slovenly spelling — a somewhat paradoxical reproach since the written syllable plays a leading role in the sight-reading method.

Whatever the life and allure with which a teacher adorns the use of the traditional method, it continues to depend upon a dogmatic and austere conception of teaching, while the attraction of the new method, on the other hand, even in its most systematic application, is derived from the interest and spontaneous activity of the child. It is interesting to note that in France the use of the sight method is developing very rapidly in girls' schools while in boys' schools the phonetic method is mostly still in progress. However, the choice remains an open one.

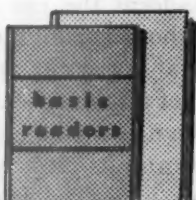
(NOTE: The long bibliography, in French referring to French sources, that accompanied the original article may be obtained by writing to the editor of this journal.)

Editor's Note: Charles T. Letson asks that IRA members be alerted to the fact that the minimum standards proposed by his committee in the October issue of this journal were standards for reading *specialists*, not for all IRA members. The title and beginning of the report were misleading to some readers.

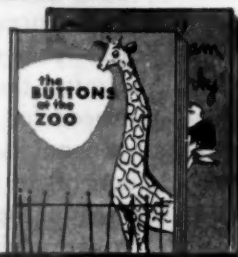
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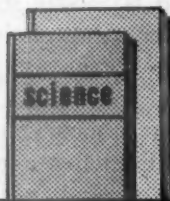
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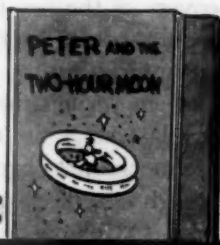
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7:00 P.M. - 9:00 P.M. Registration
7:30 P.M. - 10:00 P.M. Assembly of Delegates

Friday, May 6

8:00 A.M. - 5:00 P.M. Registration
9:30 A.M. - 11:30 A.M. Opening General Session (Manhattan Center)
2:00 P.M. - 4:00 P.M. Section Meetings: *Differentiating Instruction
to Provide for the Needs of Learners*
4:30 P.M. - 5:30 P.M. Reception

Saturday, May 7

8:00 A.M. - 11:30 A.M. Registration
9:00 A.M. - 11:15 A.M. Section Meetings: *Reading and Mental Health*
12:00 M. - 2:00 P.M. Convention Luncheon
2:30 P.M. - 4:00 P.M. Section Meetings: *Reading in Relation to the
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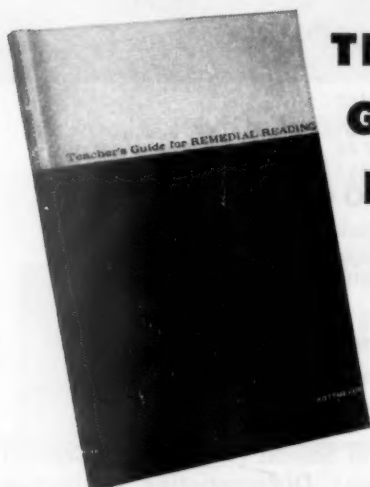
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What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

AGATHA TOWNSEND

Consultant, Educational Records Bureau

Our Students Read About Reading

As reading teachers there are many times we ask our pupils to read about reading. It is undoubtedly useful to have a class deduce certain generalizations about how to divide words into syllables, how to take notes, or how to locate topic sentences in different sorts of paragraphs. If they are truly functional, such generalizations are then reading matter for the pupils who refer to them later for guidance. Pupil-constructed generalizations have at least the advantage of familiarity; on the whole they will be couched in terms with which the student is acquainted since he had a hand in their formulation.

Other materials have been constructed by adults for the avowed purpose of explaining reading or study methods, which the pupil will then apply. A former student of the author was faced with the problem of teaching certain dictionary skills to a tenth-grade class, only to find that the appropriate sections of the (somewhat out-of-date) high school dictionary which had been issued to her seemed far beyond the comprehension of her class. On further study, we found that her impression was more than justified. The pages

in question had a Dale-Chall estimated reading level that was typical of college textbooks. It was quite noteworthy, too, that the explanatory material was far harder for her students than was application of the skills outlined in the material. The pupils could use the dictionary, but were unable to read about using it.

When we examined other dictionaries we found that the modern series are somewhat better planned, as one might expect. Even here, however, the teacher needed to explain and elucidate the discussions presented by the authors. We found a junior-high-school dictionary which had explanations of the meaning and grammatical matter that were at a desirably low level. According to the Dale-Chall formula, these parts were at the fifth- or sixth-grade level, which seemed sensible for the grades they served. Even in this series, however, the sections explaining the use of pronunciation symbols and guides were at about the ninth- and tenth-grade level. They required considerable interpretation since, like most typical tenth-grade classes, this one included pupils ranging far below stated grade level in reading ability. It might be added, as a final comment on this experiment in text selec-

tion, that the level of the meanings given in this particular dictionary is very carefully controlled, and the authors would not have permitted more than a small proportion of the words used in the definitions to reach grade levels as high as those that were common in their own explanatory text.

Dictionaries are not, of course, the only books in the modern classroom which include material about reading. The new texts and workbooks designed for junior and senior high school have greatly increased the amount of didactic writing about reading which we present to our pupils. The notes below are based on a study of some of the passages directed to the pupil in seven widely-used series for the junior high school. All the tests and manuals discussed are specifically designed for the eighth grade, or are often used at that level.

The following table summarizes the findings:

<i>Source</i>	<i>Dale-Chall Grade</i>
Program 1	5-6
Manual 2	7-8
Manual 3	5-6
Manual 4	9-10
Workbook 5	9-10
Workbook 6	7-8
Workbook 7	9-10
Text 7	9-10

The sources covered are not all similar in purpose and content, so some discussion of the results of the application of the reading formula is appropriate.

The source listed as Program 1 is

one of the lowest in reading level, as will be noted. The samples used to estimate readability are sections from the pupil's copy of a booklet in which he records his results for a series of reading exercises chosen in the light of his presumed needs and level of skill. Most of the samples were drawn from the discussions of study methods which are included in this booklet. Since this program covers an unusually wide range of materials, roughly from the upper primary grades to the senior high school, it seems very desirable that the explanatory text that will be used by all pupils in the program should be within reach of all. The material, at about the fifth-grade level, seems to meet this criterion very well.

The three Manuals, while by no means identical in approach or content, have certain features in common. All are more or less self-contained programs, designed for teaching and practice materials for developmental reading. Manual 2 was originally designed primarily for retarded readers in grade 8, but has probably received most use with heterogeneous classes at this level. The discussion of reading methods which was sampled is relatively short. That is, the manual prefers to work out reading methods through the use of the exercises, and makes less attempt to talk to the pupil about what is happening than do some of the other manuals. The explanatory material proved to be fairly easy.

Manual 3 has the lowest readability estimate of those examined. This is a single manual designed for

all three of the junior high school grades, and the explanatory material, which is quite extensive, is probably easy enough to be read with comprehension by most of the pupils who will be using the book.

Manual 4 is the middle book of a three-book series for the junior high school, and *for the exercise material* the author has aimed at a reading level about a year below the suggested grade placement of the manual. It seems doubtful that the explanatory material is within reach of all the pupils, and sampling showed that it is harder than the exercise material.

The three Workbooks are, as their description suggests, designed to be used along with eighth-grade texts. They constitute an expansion of the texts, providing further practice with selections presented, or giving parallel selections which can be studied to reinforce the skills covered in the books. They are, as one might expect, somewhat fuller in their explanations to the pupil about what is to be accomplished in the exercises than are the textbooks themselves, which have various aims, among them an emphasis on the literary values of the stories and selections.

Since it was possible to find a considerable amount of didactic material in these workbooks, an effort was made to secure samples from the three which would be roughly comparable in intent. The selections analyzed were all drawn from instructions for improving the skills of skimming or prereading to locate the main idea, spot desired information, and so on. As will be seen, the

three discussions of skimming for the eighth-grader vary somewhat in reading difficulty. Even the lowest of these may be hard going for some of the poorer readers in the average classroom.

It happens that the series which includes Workbook 7 has several chapters in the textbook that discuss reading methods for the junior high school pupil. An analysis was therefore made of parts of this text that covered the same general area. The samples for Workbook 7 and Text 7, then, are designed to supplement each other, with the workbook reinforcing and giving further explanation for a skill introduced in the textbook. It seems questionable whether the discussion given in either source will be within the reach of a majority of eighth graders.

It should be reiterated that the analysis of these manuals is limited to the material addressed to the pupil, which talks about reading methods as such. Here the student reads about reading. Just as we found in our original sampling of school dictionaries, there is not necessarily a one-to-one correspondence in the difficulty of the explanatory material and of the selection or exercise which it is designed to elucidate. A number of selections for reading, as distinct from the text, were studied, and it was found that the reading level of the selections was quite closely geared to helping pupils below, as well as those at or above, grade level in reading.

It is possible that the authors of manuals and workbooks are slighting

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their own material. They are perhaps being much more careful to examine the suitability of selections from other authors which they use for their exercise material than they are to apply the same readability tests to what they write themselves. Undoubtedly they expect the teacher to supplement the explanations, while the selections and exercise material will be used as printed. But is this entirely satisfactory? Some of the workbooks and manuals are at least advertised for use with a minimum of teacher supervision. They are supposedly designed for independent work.

There is an opportunity here for the authors of books and manuals to do some direct teaching about reading methods, an opportunity of which they should be well aware. Some of them in fact do teach, and do it very well. Others, on the other hand, may underestimate the importance of this part of their work. It seems, at any rate, important for the teacher to know what is going on when the student reads about reading.

Experimental TV Instruction

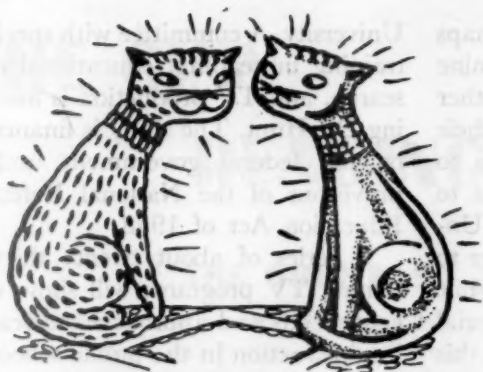
A study of reading instruction is being conducted by Dr. Lyman C. Hunt, Jr., at The Pennsylvania State

University. A committee with special training in reading, educational research, and TV production is assisting Dr. Hunt. The study is financed by the federal government under provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958.

A series of about twenty thirty-minute TV programs will show recent trends and approaches to reading instruction in the public schools. In these programs, to be telecast early in 1960 by WFBG (Altoona), outstanding public school teachers will present selected portions of their school reading programs. Four groups of teachers will be randomly assigned into two groups that view and two that do not view the series. Groups of parents will be selected for similar participation in the study.

Efforts will be concentrated on attempting to determine whether the TV series has made changes in each teacher's methods of instruction and in the attitudes of the teachers toward reading instruction. Achievement tests will evaluate the children's reading, and attitude scales administered before and after the series will survey changes in parent attitudes towards the methods of reading instruction advocated by the series.

It is hoped that a permanent recording can be made of the series of programs.



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What Other Magazines Say About READING

BY

MURIEL POTTER LANGMAN

Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

GILBERT, LUTHER C. "Speed of Processing Visual Stimuli and Its Relation to Reading." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, February, 1959.

This study was undertaken to examine the discrepancy between the speed and span of visual perception as measured by tachistoscopic tests and the speed of reading easy prose. The experimenter had observed that phrases of meaningful printed material may be identified in the test situation by college students much more rapidly than are easy prose materials in typical reading situations. The subjects in the study were sixty-four college students (forty-one women and twenty-three men) whose native language was English.

Material comprising a reading test of adequate reliability was used for determining speed and comprehension in reading. The speed of the subjects ranged from 143 to 464 words per minute, the average being 262 words. The tests of span of perception were made up of short familiar words, with phrases gradually increasing from one to five words, and from one letter to twenty-five letter spaces. Each test was composed of five spans, from a one-word span to a five-word span, and there were five test items for each span. The material was projected in a room with just enough light so that the sub-

jects could see to write their answers. A check of vision eliminated six subjects. Materials were composed of two-line items, the first line a word or phrase, the second, a series of nonsense letters used as interfering stimuli.

The first test measured the span of perception when the subjects were allowed unlimited time for the use of the after-image in interpreting what they had seen on the screen, the kind of tachistoscopic span test commonly used in both experimentation and in training for speed of visual perception. The other five tests controlled the time allowed for processing the words, which were flashed on the screen, by increasing the time the words were left on the screen before superimposing nonsense letters on the same spot where the words had been presented. Each control test increased by 1/24 second the length of time the material was left on the screen. Exposure time for nonsense letters was held constant at 2/24 second for each test.

For the uncontrolled span, the group reported accurately more than 98 per cent of the words up to and including the two-word level. The test procedure required (for the controlled spans) that the moment the sense material left the screen nonsense letters appeared in its place, while the subjects were in-

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structed to ignore the nonsense material and remember the sense material.

Many interesting results emerged. The experimenter summarizes by saying that in visual perception, such as is used in reading meaningful material, the "fixation pause must be long enough in duration to allow time not only to see but also time to process the visual stimuli." The percentage of words reported by subjects increased with the length of the exposure, particularly between exposures of 2/24 and 3/24 second. By the time the 6/24 second exposure was reached, imposed stimuli had no measured detrimental influence on the five-word span of perception for the group, though some very slow readers were still experiencing some difficulty due to the interference of the nonsense stimuli. The experimenter concludes that both the length of time the words are left on the screen and the length of the period free from interfering stimuli are important factors, suggesting that some readers may use part of their fixation time to avoid interference from a new stimulus during the time they need free for processing the visual stimulus.

Dr. Gilbert then considers slow readers and their perceptual processes. He observes that most slow readers in reading simple prose use a smaller span of visual perception and a longer fixation pause than do faster readers. He observed in one case that a student with a larger than usual perception span also needed a longer interval of time free from interfering stimuli in order to process her span of visual perception.

What relationship have these impor-

tant and interesting findings to the reading processes? There is an actual period needed for processing reading, in addition to visual perception time. Those who have observed many poor readers have found that even after a child has reached the point of recognizing without hesitation each individual word in meaningful material, he tends to continue to read slowly. One of Dr. Gilbert's conclusions, if I read aright, is that interfering stimuli have a greater influence on the span of visual perception of the slow readers than on that of the fast readers. Anyone who has tested a poor reader by exposing common words and phrases tachistoscopically has observed these children making use of the after-image by closing their eyes and examining it after the exposure is over. Can it be that their very slow reading is due to inability to prevent interference of succeeding words with the impression of the one on which they are focusing? And does this not also suggest why so many children can read single words from word cards, but fail to recognize the same words in easy connected material?

This study seems important because of its suggestions about the nature of the process by which visual impressions of words become material for the thinking process which is required, as McKee says, in following the thought of the writer.

ROBINSON, HELEN M. "Methods of Teaching Beginning Readers." In *News and Comment, Elementary School Journal*, May, 1959.

Dr. Robinson weighs carefully the evidence presented for relationship be-

tween reading success in first grade and the teaching of letter names and sounds at the beginning of this year in a study by Donald D. Durrell, Alice Nicholson, Arthur V. Olson, Sylvia R. Gavel, and Eleanor B. Linehan, published in the *Boston University Journal of Education*, February, 1958. Since the study itself is not available to me, I am presenting some of Dr. Robinson's comments in the hope that they will inspire readers to go to the study itself for further information.

Dr. Robinson describes briefly the procedure for the study and discusses a number of points of method and interpretation. She points out that the selection of the teachers who participated in the study was an uncontrolled variable, as was the supervision of these teachers. Dr. Durrell has stated that the implications of the study are (1) that "most reading difficulties can be prevented by an instructional program which provides early instruction in letters and sounds," (2) that "early instruction in letter names and sounds produces a higher June reading achievement than does such instruction given incidentally during the year," and (3) that "there appears to be no basis for the assumption that a sight vocabulary of 75 words should be taught before word analysis skills are presented." Three basic assumptions for present instruction in beginning reading are being questioned, and it is

extremely important that the study be carefully evaluated.

It is interesting to find so many different results obtained by different researchers. The statements now being questioned are based on earlier research findings. Dr. Durrell's statement, quoted by Dr. Robinson, that able pupils make greater progress when reading readiness (procedure? experience?) is omitted, is a conclusion which must be considered in the light of the many definitions of reading readiness procedures. Frequently a routine, mechanical procedure provided by the use of some printed materials is equated with much more stimulating, varied reading readiness experience. Under no circumstances can all reading readiness experience, even for the brightest children, be dismissed as not necessary on the findings of one study.

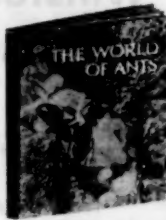
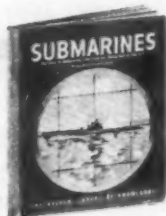
KIRK, SAMUEL A. "The Slow Learner-Remedial Work in the Elementary School." *NEA Journal*, October, 1959.

Dr. Kirk's article deals broadly with reading as the main problem of slow learners. He discusses some expectations for slow learners in reading. He recommends some specific word-analysis procedures to be used after observation and informal diagnosis, particularly commenting on children's difficulty with word and letter blending and with auditory discrimination. Since a poor reader is a slow learner, these comments are of interest to all of us.

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Young Readers

"School Briefs" (Scott, Foresman) reports that two out of three teenagers polled by the Institute of Public Opinion in New York City were reading a book other than a school book. Twenty-six per cent of the young people had bought a book within the thirty days preceding the poll.

Language Arts Publications

"Guide for the Teacher of the English Language Arts," distributed by the National Council of Teachers of English, lists and describes periodicals, reading lists, film strips, books, pamphlets, literary maps, and recordings published or distributed by the organization. Members may purchase some of the materials at a discount. Write to The National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth St., Champaign, Ill., for the Guide.

Subject Index

No one can estimate the hours saved teachers through the use of Rue's subject indexes, primary and intermediate, and their supplements. Some schools, where children are encouraged to read widely in science and in social studies, provide a copy for each classroom. Recognizing the need for an index that covers more recent books, the American Library

Association has a new one in preparation. It is being compiled by Mary K. Eakin and Eleanor Merritt, and like its predecessors will be titled *Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades*.

Bibliographies

Recommended Children's Books of 1958-59. 62 West 45th St., New York 36, N. Y.: R. R. Bowker. \$2.00. The booklet contains over 1100 reviews reprinted in full from the *Library Journal*. The books reviewed were published during 1958 and the first half of 1959. Exceptional books are starred. Entries are arranged by grade and subject. There is a complete author-title index.

Reference Materials for School Libraries: Grades 1 through 12. North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1959. \$0.50. This pamphlet lists basic reference books and sets, some textbooks and single volumes, arranged in Dewey classifications. The chief emphasis is on grades 7 through 12.

Purchase Guide for Programs in Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Languages. Prepared by the Council of Chief State School Officers. Lillian L. Batchelor, Philadelphia, served as chairman of a committee to prepare the bibliographies in this guide to aid schools in

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Anne Frank: The Diary of a Young Girl

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A dog's devotion — a strong man's courage — and the primitive frozen north as a setting in one of the greatest adventure stories of all time. Complete and unabridged, this Globe edition is supplemented by action photographs, maps, a glossary, and provocative question material arranged by Helen J. Hanlon.

ABRIDGED

The Good Earth — Pearl S. Buck

This Nobel Prize-winning novel has been abridged to remove portions of the original which would prevent its use in the average classroom. The School Edition is illustrated and provided with helpful teaching aids by Dr. J. E. Greene.

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acquiring teaching materials. Boston: Ginn. \$3.95.

The Traveling Elementary School Science Library, by Hilary J. Deason, assisted by Nancy C. Barrett and Stephen W. Fisher. *The Traveling High School Science Library*, 5th Edition, by Hilary J. Deason. \$0.25 each. American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

Study Skills

A few years after the excitement about Johnny's lack of ability to sound out words, increasing concern about academic excellence has convinced the public that word recognition is not enough. A pamphlet by Ralph C. Preston, Director of the Reading Clinic, University of Pennsylvania, offers suggestions to teachers of ways to help pupils improve their study procedures. This is more than a how-to-do-it publication, however. The important bases for recommended procedures are discussed concisely, yet simply. Ralph C. Preston. *Teaching Study Habits and Skills*. New York: Rinehart, 1959. \$1.00.

Basic Words

Occasionally a primary teacher prepares independent study or practice material for children, only to find that the written directions contain so many unfamiliar words that the reader is bewildered and disturbed. In preparing reading materials for those who need special assistance, the teacher tries to use

words and phrases that will be immediately useful in further reading. These are only two of the situations in which Dr. Helen B. Knipp's booklet, *Basic Vocabulary, Phrases, and Sentences for Early Reading Instruction*, may prove useful. "The 2,646 words most frequently found in basic readers, spelling textbooks, and authoritative vocabulary lists have been arranged in five levels with the most common words in Level I and with increasingly difficult vocabulary at each succeeding level." Common phrases and sentences are also arranged on five levels. Published at Meadville, Penna., by the Keystone View Co., 1952. No price given.

For a different view of basic word lists, read Nancy Larrick, "We're Out on a Limb with the Word Lists," in *Junior Reviewers*, 6 (Sept., 1959), 11-12.

Good News

The Research Division of the NEA reports an increase of 10.9 per cent over last year in the number of librarians entering the school library field.

The 1958 book sales figures were 6 per cent higher than the 1957 figures, according to the American Book Publishers Council.

Reprints

The Looking Glass Library is a new series of inexpensive reprints of children's classics. Each volume will sell for \$1.50. Among the first books will be works by Andrew Lang, E. Nesbit, Conan Doyle, and Edward Lear.

The First IRA Institute

Neurological and Psychiatric Considerations in Reading Retardation

With the growth of the IRA have come large meetings and varied programs. For those with specialized interests the regular meetings fall short of coming to grips with particular problems and questions. To alleviate this the IRA has decided to establish a yearly one-day institute for a limited audience. The First IRA Institute will be held the day before the regular IRA conference, Thursday, May 5, 1960, in the Hotel Statler-Hilton in New York City.

The theme of the institute is "Neurological and Psychiatric Considerations in Reading Retardation," with the eminent child psychiatrist, Ralph D. Rabinovitch, M.D., as the main speaker. Dr. Rabinovitch is Director of the Hawthorn Center in Northville, Michigan, a treatment, training, and research institute in child psychiatry. He was formerly Associate Professor of Psychiatry at the University of Michigan and on the staff of Bellevue Hospital in New York.

The institute is not intended as a series of how-to-do-it sessions, but as an opportunity to hear from, and discuss with, an experienced and knowledgeable scholar problems related to reading retardation. Dr. Rabinovitch will present a paper, the paper will be discussed by the participants, and questions raised by the participants will be answered by Dr. Rabinovitch. Participants will then meet again, by areas of interest, for further discussion of the topic and of practical problems in their respective fields.

PROGRAM

Thursday, May 5, 1960

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| 9:00- 9:30 | Institute registration |
| 9:30-11:00 | Presentation of paper by Dr. Rabinovitch |
| 11:00-11:30 | Break—Coffee will be served. |
| 11:30- 1:00 | Discussion of Dr. Rabinovitch's paper by participants in small discussion groups |
| 1:00- 3:00 | Free time |
| 3:00- 5:30 | Question and Answer Panel (the speaker will answer questions raised in the discussion groups) |
| 5:30- 8:00 | Free time |
| 8:00- 9:30 | Small discussion groups based on the interests of the participants. <i>Topic:</i> Relating what has been learned to practical problems |

(The First IRA Institute)

The institute is designed for supervisors of clinics, remedial specialists, college instructors, researchers, and administrators of reading programs. Participants will be expected to do some preparatory reading and will receive the necessary bibliography in sufficient time.

Registration will be limited to 100 applicants. The attached cutout (or an application letter with the same information) should be completed and returned by March 1, 1960. The registration fee for the institute is \$7.00 and is payable after acknowledgment of receipt of the registration application.

Pre-Conference Institute Committee

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For Teachers and Children

Our classrooms are filled with young scientists who are eager to keep pace with progress in the explorations of outer space. Their many questions demand logical and useful answers which lively, informative, and provocative books can help provide. Fortunately, some of the new trade books offer clear and interesting explanations without compromising facts. These books are also resources for teachers, who recognize that our neighbors in outer space may well provide us with new frontiers tomorrow.

One of the most prolific, and undoubtedly one of the most interesting, writers of children's books on outer space is Franklyn Branley, who, with the help of excellent illustrators, has been publishing materials through Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 432 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York. Last year we mentioned his lively text for the very youngest readers, *A Book of Satellites for You*. Evidently it was well received, for he has teamed up with the same illustrator, Leonard Kessler, to produce *A Book of Moon Rockets for You* (Pp. 58, \$3.00). This timely, colorful book tells what moon rockets are: their uses, speeds, and orbits. For somewhat older readers he has written *The Nine Planets* (Pp. 77, \$3.00), which explains many concepts

about the planets and their relationships to each other and to the sun. His *Experiments in Sky Watching* (Pp. 112, \$3.50) describes easy-to-follow experiments with simple household equipment to give the reader a better understanding of our planet and the entire solar system. Mr. Branley is a professional astronomer who knows how to share his knowledge with children.

For the young reader other interesting new space books include:

The First Book of Space, by Ila Podendorf. Chicago: Children's Press, 1959. Pp. 48. \$2.00.

A Book to Begin on Outer Space, by Eunice Holsaert. New York: Henry Holt, 1959. Pp. 48. \$2.00.

Off into Space! by Margaret O. Hyde. New York: Whittlesey, 1959. Pp. 64. \$2.50. Science for young space travelers.

Rockets into Space, by Alexander L. Crosby and Nancy Larrick. New York: Random House, 1959. Pp. 96. \$1.95. A new, easy-to-read book.

For the older readers:

You and Space Travel, by John Lewellen. Chicago: Children's Press, 1959. Pp. 60. \$1.50. This text simply and graphically traces man's progress in space travel, starting with the invention of the propeller.

Moon Base, by Michael Chester and

Just Published

MECHANICS OF ENGLISH

by

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This basic grammar and workbook offers a fresh and readily understood explanation of English sentence structure, punctuation, and usage for students whose knowledge of basic sentence structure patterns and of the elements that make up these patterns is so slight as to be ineffectual. The book is so constructed as to encourage complete mastery of successive small bodies

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by Glenn McCracken

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18 photographs

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TERMINAL REPORT ON THE NEW CASTLE READING EXPERIMENT

The New Castle investigation now ranks as one of the most extensive and revealing reading research projects ever conducted in our country. In twelve years Mr. McCracken has gathered conclusive evidence that:

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3. Curricula of teacher-training colleges should be revised.

Part Two of THE RIGHT TO LEARN describes in detail the visual reading method which has improved reading results 40 to 50 per cent in the more than 25 American and Canadian schools where it has been tested.

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Henry Regnery Company, 14 East Jackson Boulevard,
Chicago (\$4.50, less 20% discount to educators, \$3.60).

William Nephew. New York: Putnam, 1959. Pp. 72. \$2.75.

The Rocket Handbook for Amateurs, edited by Lt. Colonel Charles M. Parkin, Jr. New York: John Day, 1959. Pp. 320. \$5.95. An illustrated guide to the safe construction, testing, and launching of model rockets.

Despite the interest in outer space, the exciting stories of the early American pioneers are still popular with children. Thus, *Frontiers of America*, a new series of action-filled western stories of real people, simply written, will excite the curiosity of many children and teachers who are looking for readable prose. The current series, written by Edith McCall and published by Children's Press, Chicago, includes such titles as: *Steamboats to the West*, *Hunters Blaze the Trail*, and *Log Fort Adventures*. \$2.50 each.

A Spelling Laboratory

ANDERSON, PAUL S. *Resource Materials for Teachers of Spelling*. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. 118. \$3.00.

Many of us fret about the problems children have in spelling, but probably few of us feel that we have ample resources to thoroughly deal with individual difficulties. Not so with Dr. Anderson. He has compiled an outstanding collection of resource materials which interested teachers will certainly appreciate.

The period of the school day which is devoted to spelling, according to Dr. Anderson, is a *laboratory* period when this aspect of writing is temporarily isolated for specific purposes. The success of this laboratory study can be

measured by the way a child spells in his written work. Indeed, spelling is a refinement of writing.

The author provides numerous techniques for teaching spelling, with many fine enrichment suggestions. His spelling laboratory is well equipped. He also offers counsel on how to use the spelling textbook and how to plan a spelling lesson. All in all, he gives splendid assistance in an area where such assistance is sorely needed.

Functional Testing

SMITH, NILA B., et al. *Graded Selections for Informal Reading Diagnosis*. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. 183. \$3.00.

Dr. Smith and instructors at the N.Y.U. Reading Institute have prepared this volume as one of a series of handbooks for "functional testing" in reading. The test materials are sixteen basal reader selections from preprimer to third reader, with twenty questions for checking the comprehension of each. For analysis of word recognition problems, words in each selection are grouped according to phonetic and structural elements. Brief instructions are given for test administration and analysis of results. The actual readers containing the selections are necessary for the test.

Many questions could be raised about comprehension checks provided, instructions for administration and recording, and the selections themselves. For instance, will the length of selections prevent efficient, reliable testing? Are the instructions inadequate, except for experienced diagnostic clinicians? Is the expected compre-

hension too superficial? Certainly there is considerable repetition of ideas in the "literal" and "interpretation" questions. Essential ideas are often given in the questions, many of which could be answered without reading. Of the ten "interpretation" questions on one second-reader story, for example, children with whom they were tried were able to answer seven although they had not read the story.

Suggestions for analysis of word recognition needs are good. Although there is no attempt to provide for systematic analysis of specific needs in comprehension, both retention of specific information and interpretation of ideas are tapped. As an effort to encourage use of informal or functional inventories of actual reading performance to determine a child's instructional level and specific strengths and weaknesses, the book is most welcome.

—MARJORIE SEDDON JOHNSON,
Temple University

Reading Pamphlets

Your Child and His Reading—How Parents Can Help, by Nancy Larrick. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 278. New York: Public Affairs Committee (22 East 38th St.), 1959. Pp. 25. \$0.25. A condensation of some of the many fine suggestions and recommendations made by Dr. Larrick in *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading*, sponsored by the National Book Committee. The book was reviewed in the *READING TEACHER* last year.

More About Reading, Margaret Rasmussen, editor. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education, International, 1959. Pp. 32. \$0.50. A

compilation of articles on individualized reading reprinted from *Childhood Education*. The various authors enthusiastically favor self selection of trade books over a basal reading program because they believe individual needs are more adequately met and children read more.

Reading Instruction

DAWSON, MILDRED A., and BAMAN, HENRY A. *Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1959. Pp. 299. \$4.25. It is quite evident that this new text was meant to be a primer for students aspiring to be elementary school teachers. The authors briefly and directly endeavor to show what teachers need to know to teach basic reading skills. It is essentially a what-has-to-be-done approach with little space for showing teachers how to help pupils discover the skills they need.

VEATCH, JEANETTE. *Individualizing Your Reading Program*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. 242.

This volume helps clarify what one school of thought means by "individualized reading," a term which has appeared increasingly often during the past decade. The first part of the book sets about to explain the individualized reading program and identifies three major characteristics: (1) self-selection of material by pupils for their own instruction, (2) individual conferences between each pupil and teacher, (3) the organization of groups for reasons other than ability or proficiency in reading. Part I also attempts to support the program, but research bases

are virtually nonexistent. As a result, the reader has the feeling that he is receiving not an intellectual invitation to learning, but a call to come forward and be saved. Nevertheless, Part I contains many thought-provoking descriptions. Part II provides an easily accessible collection of articles about individualized reading which give interested persons ready reference to recent writing (favorable only) on the subject.

Probably the most significant concern in the book is with the motivation of reading. Basic to this concern are the areas of children's interests, purpose setting, and teachers' questioning techniques. The nettlesome problem of motivation has been with us for years

and is especially apparent in the basal reader lockstep so prevalent throughout much of the United States.

The author makes it clear that her concept of individualized reading is not something that is a part of the usual basal reading program, but rather that it is *the* program. It appears quite likely that the book may bear greatest fruit by sending protagonists of one program or another scurrying to basic research to find out what is what. In addition to what some call pure research, we may even see come to pass the emergence of legitimate action research. If so, the book's value will transcend even its author's hoped-for effect.

—THOMAS D. HORN

The University of Texas

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Guest lecturers will be announced in the April issue of *The Reading Teacher*.

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PRESIDENT'S REPORT

BY

A. STERL ARTLEY

President, International Reading Association

SINCE MY report to you in the December issue of *THE READING TEACHER* literally all of my IRA time has been spent in the midst of details relating to the annual meeting to be held in New York next May. In this issue you will find a program outline of the main events. I am unable at this time to announce the names of the speakers, since this is the particular aspect of the program on which we are now working. Suffice it to say that approximately eighty-five people have been invited to participate in some capacity. One of my regrets is that we are unable to use on the program all of the excellent talent that is available in our membership.

You will also find in this issue an announcement prepared by Dr. Chall and her committee relative to the one-day Pre-Conference Institute on neurological and psychiatric factors in reading retardation. Since attendance is limited, it will be necessary to send your application promptly if you desire to attend.

Shortly after this issue of *THE READING TEACHER* reaches you, you will receive from Dr. McCallister, the secretary-treasurer, a more detailed program announcement and pre-registration forms. It will be helpful if you pre-register early.

As in the past, a significant feature

of the conference will be the display of books, materials, and apparatus by commercial exhibitors. It is anticipated that some seventy-five exhibitors will be showing their materials.

It is our plan to secure audience participation in the group meetings by providing opportunities to raise questions from the floor. Knowing the reluctance of many to lead off with questions, we are having people assigned to various meetings to serve as question "starters." I mention this feature of the program only to let you know that in these days of television investigations this show is not "rigged."

I am pleased to announce that the Elva Knight Research Fund of the International Reading Association is the recipient of a gift of \$1,000 from Mrs. Janet Pope and Mrs. Rachel Chaffey of Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts. Mrs. Pope and Mrs. Chaffey were close personal friends of Miss Knight and the gift is made in her memory. This brings the total in the Elva Knight Fund to \$10,000. We publicly acknowledge this generous gift and thank the donors for this evidence of their interest in reading research.

By the time you receive this issue of *THE READING TEACHER* you will have had the opportunity to read the first issue of the *IRA Newsletter*. We



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trust you will find this publication a source of information and suggestions for organizational activities. Dr. Louis Cooper is volunteering his services to make this a useful publication.

I am pleased to announce that continued growth of IRA is evident in the formation of eight new coun-

cils between September and November, three of these in Canada, four in the United States, and one in Puerto Rico. We are particularly pleased over the organization of the Puerto Rico council since it is the first to be established in that commonwealth.

It is now time to make plans to see your friends in New York.

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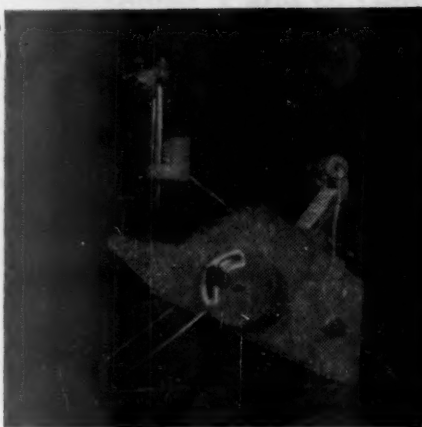
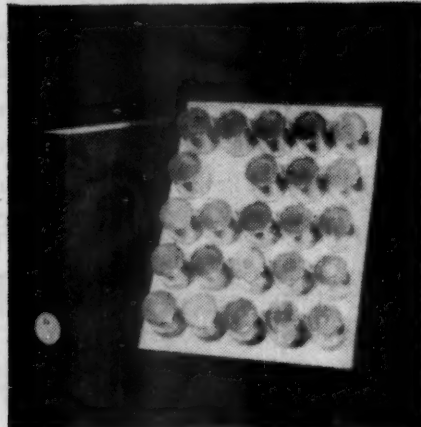
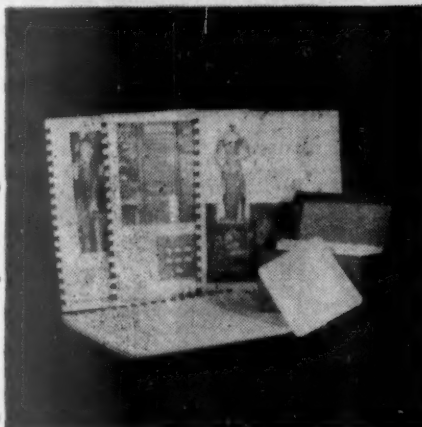
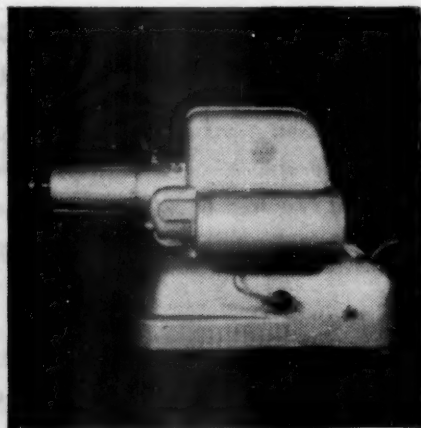
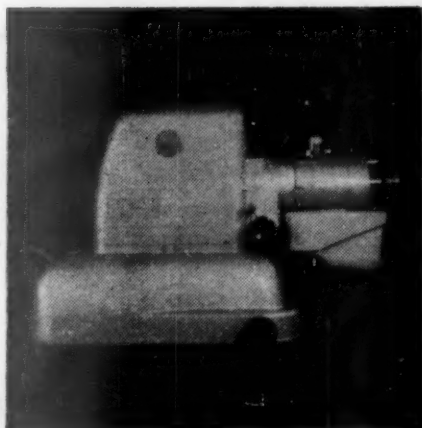
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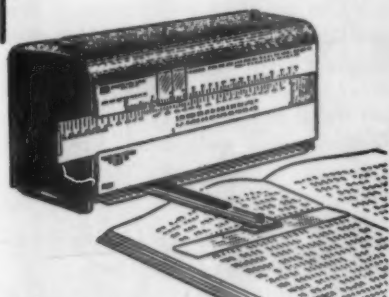


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